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## SEMINARIES FOR TEACHERS.

The following remarks on Seminaries for Teachers were published, in substance, more than twelve years since, by the Rev. T. H. Gallaudet. They were from his own reflections, without any knowledge of foreign institutions of a similar kind. He seems, at that time, to have anticipated what is now beginning to be regarded as so essential to success in the cause of popular education. We earnestly invite the attention of the readers of the Journal to this important subject.

No important result can be attained with regard to the accomplishment of any object which affects the temporal or eternal well-being of our species, without enlisting an entire devotedness to it. What is it, that has furnished us with able divines, lawyers, and physicians? The undivided consecration of the talents and efforts of intelligent and upright individuals to these professions. How have these talents been matured, and these efforts been trained, to their beneficial results? By a diligent course of preparation, and a long discipline in the school of experience. We have our theological, law, and medical institutions, in which our young men are fitted for the pursuit of these respective professions, by deriving benefit from the various sources of information which libraries, lectures, and experiments afford. Unaided by such auxiliaries, genius, however brilliant; invention, however prolific; observation, however acute; ingenuity, however ready; and perseverance, however indefatigable; have to grope their way through a long and tiresome process, to the attainment of results which a little acquaintance with the labors of others in the same track of effort, would render a thousand times more easy, rapid, and delightful. Experience is the storehouse of knowledge. Now why should not this experience be resorted to as an auxiliary in the education of youth? Why not make this department of human exertion, a profession, as well as those of divinity, law, and medicine? Why not have an Institution for the training up of instructors for their sphere of labor, as well as institutions to prepare young men for the duties of the divine, the lawyer, or the physician?

Can a subject of more interest present itself to the consideration of the public? Does not the future improvement of our species, to which the philanthropist and the Christian look forward with such delightful anticipation, depend on the plans which are adopted for the development and cultivation of the intellectual and moral powers of man? Must not these plans begin with infancy and childhood? Do not the attainments of the pupil depend upon the talents, the fidelity, and the integrity of those by whom he is taught? How will he learn to think, to speak, to read, and to write with accuracy, unless his instructors are able to teach him? Shall their ability depend upon their individual experience and attainments? Are you satisfied with a divine, a lawyer, or a physician, who has qualified himself, or pretended to do so, for his profession, by solitary, unaided, unadvised, untaught, inexperienced efforts? You do not do this. Why not, then, require in the instructors of youth, to whom you commit the training up of your offspring, an adequate preparation for their most important and responsible employment?

But this preparatory discipline is considered indispensable not merely for the learned professions, but for the ordinary occupations of life.

A term of years is required to fulfil the duties of an apprenticeship to any of the mechanical trades. An artisan does not venture to solicit the patronage of the public, till he has undergone this apprenticeship. This training under the instruction of experienced masters, is deemed of still more importance in what are termed the liberal arts, such as painting, sculpture, and engraving. To foster them, academies are formed; models are collected; lectures are delivered; and the young novice is willing to devote years of patient and assiduous labor, to fit himself for success in his profession. We hear, too, of what is termed a regularly bred merchant; and the drilling of the counter and the counting house is considered indispensable to prepare one for all the complicated transactions of trade and commerce. And if men are to be trained to arms, academies are established, at which experience, ingenuity, and science are put in requisition, to qualify the young and inexperienced for military exploits. In fact, there is scarce any pursuit connected with the business of life, but what men have endeavored to render successful, by a process predicated on well known principles of human nature;—by making it, in the first place, a distinct profession or calling; then, by yielding to those who have long been engaged in it, the deference which their experience justly demands; and finally, by compelling those who would wish to adopt it, to devote themselves to it, and to pass through all the preparatory steps which are necessary for the consummation of their acquaintance both with its theory and practice. In this way only we hope to form good mechanics, painters, engravers, sculptors, farmers, merchants, physicians, and lawyers.

Perhaps some of my illustrations may be considered of too humble a kind. But my subject is a very practical one, and I intend to treat it in a practical way. Permit me, then, to inquire of my readers, when they wish to get a shoe made, to whom they apply? Do they not take considerable pains to find a first-rate workman; one who has learned his trade well, and who can execute his work in the best manner? And when our wives and daughters want a new bonnet, or a new dress, will they not make a great many inquiries, and take not a few steps, and consume no small portion of very valuable time, to ascertain the important fact, who is the most skilful, and whose work is the most convenient, and wait till their patience is almost exhausted, and their wants very clamorous, in order to obtain the precious satisfaction of having the work done by hands whose skill and ingenuity have been long tested, and on whose experience and judgment in adjusting colors, and qualities, and proportions, and symmetry, and shape, they can safely rely?

Is a shoe, or a bonnet, to be put in competition with an immortal mind?

In your very articles of dress, to clothe a frail, perishable body, that is soon to become the prey of corruption, will you be so scrupulous in the choice of those whom you employ to make them; and yet feel no solicitude in requiring of those to whom is entrusted the formation of the habits, and thoughts and feelings of a soul that is to live forever, a preparation for their most responsible task; an apprenticeship to their important calling; a devotedness to a pursuit which involves all that can affect the tenderest sympathies of a kind parent,—the most ardent hopes of a true patriot,—the most expanded views of a sincere philanthropist,—the most benevolent wishes of a devout Christian?

I am told that the Patent-office at Washington is thronged with models of machines, intended to facilitate the various processes of mechanical labor; and I read, in our public prints of the deep interest which is felt in many of those happy discoveries that are made to provide for the wants, and comforts, and luxuries of man, at an easier and a cheaper rate; and I hear those eulogized as the benefactors of our race, whose genius invents, and whose patient application carries into effect, any project for winnowing some sheaves of wheat a little quicker, or spinning some threads of cotton a little sooner, or propelling a boat or a car a little faster, than has heretofore been done; and, all this while, how comparatively few improvements are made, in the process of educating the youthful mind; and in training it for usefulness in this life, and for happiness in the life to come!

Is human ingenuity and skill to be on the alert in almost every other field of enterprise but this? How can we reconcile our apathy on this subject with the duties which we owe to our children, to our country, and to our God?

Let the same provision, then, be made for giving success to this department of effort that is so liberally made for all others. Let an institution be established in every state, for the express purpose of training up young men for the profession of instructors of youth in the common branches of an English education. Let it be so well endowed, by the liberality of the public, or of individuals, as to have two or three professors, men of talents and habits adapted to the pursuit, who should devote their lives to the object of the 'Theory and Practice of

the Education of Youth,' and who should prepare, and deliver, and print, a course of lectures on the subject.

Let the institution be furnished with a *library*, which shall contain all the works, theoretical and practical, in all languages, that can be obtained on the subject of education, and also with all the apparatus that modern ingenuity has devised for this purpose; such as maps, charts, globes, orreries, &c.

Let there be connected with the institution a school, smaller or larger, as circumstances may dictate, in which the theories of the professors can be reduced to practice, and from which daily experience would derive a thousand useful instructions.

To such an Institution let young men resort who are ready to devote themselves to the business of instructors of youth. Let them attend a regular course of lectures on the subject of education; read the best works; take their turns in the instruction of the *experimental school*, and after thus becoming qualified for their office, leave the Institution with a suitable certificate, or diploma, recommending them to the confidence of the public.

I have scarcely room to allude to the advantages which would result from such a plan. It would direct the attention, and concentrate the efforts, and inspire the zeal, of many worthy and intelligent minds to *one important object*. They would excite each other in this new career of doing good. Every year would produce a valuable accession to the mass of experience that would be constantly accumulating at such a store-house of knowledge. The business of instructing youth would be reduced to a system, which would embrace the best and the readiest modes of conducting it. This system would be gradually diffused throughout the community. Our instructors would rank, as they ought to do, among the most respectable professions. We should know to whom we entrusted the care and education of our offspring. These instructors, corresponding, as they naturally would, with the Institution which they had left, and visiting it at its annual, and my imagination already portrays, delightful festivals, would impart to it, and to each other, the discoveries and improvements which they might individually make, in their separate spheres of employment.

In addition to all this, what great advantages such an institution would afford, by the combined talents of its professors, its library, its experimental school, and perhaps by the endowment of two or three fellowships for this very object, for the *formation of the best books to be employed in the early stages of education*; a desideratum which none but some intelligent mothers and teachers, and a few others, who have devoted themselves to so humble, yet important an object, can fully appreciate. Connected with the education of youth; and thus, the combined results of those individuals in domestic life, whose attention has been directed to the subject, would be brought to a point, examined, weighed, matured, digested, systematized, promulgated, and carried into effect.

Such an Institution would also tend to *elevate the tone of public sentiment, and to quicken the zeal of public effort with regard to the correct intellectual and moral education of the rising generation.*

To accomplish any great object, the co-operation of numbers is necessary. This is emphatically true in our republican community. Individual influence, or wealth, is inadequate to the task. Monarchs, or nobles, may singly devise, and carry into effect, Herculean enterprises. But we have no royal institutions; ours must be of more gradual growth, and perhaps, too, may aspire to more generous and impartial beneficence, and attain to more settled and immovable stability. Now, to concentrate the attention, and interest, and exertions of the public on any important object, it must assume a definite and palpable form. It must have 'a local habitation and name.' For instance, you may, by statements of facts, and by eloquent appeals to the sympathies of others, excite a good deal of feeling with regard to the deaf and dumb, or to the insane. But so long as you fail to direct this good will in some particular channel of practical effort, you only play round the hearts of those whom you wish to enlist in the cause. They will think, and feel, and talk, and hope that something will be done; but that is all. But erect your Asylum for the deaf and dumb, and your Retreat for the insane. Bring these objects of your pity together. Let the public see them. Commence your plans of relief. Show that something can be done, and *how and where* it can be done, and you bring into action that sympathy and benevolence which would otherwise have been wasted in mere wishes, and hopes, and expectations. Just so with regard to improvements in education. Establish an Institution, such as I have ventured to recommend, in every state. The public attention will be directed to it. Its professors will have their friends and correspondents in various parts of the country, to whom they will, from time to time, communicate the results of their speculations, and efforts, and to whom they will impart a portion of the enthusiasm which they themselves feel. Such an institution, too, would soon become an object of laudable curiosity. Thousands would visit it. Its experimental school, if properly conducted, would form a most delightful and interesting spectacle. Its library and various apparatus would be, I may say, a novelty in this department of the philosophy of the human mind. It would probably, also, have its public examinations, which would draw together an assembly of intelligent and literary individuals. Its students, as they dispersed through the community,

would carry with them the *spirit of the Institution*, and thus, by these various processes of communication, the whole mass of public sentiment, and feeling, and effort, would be imbued with it.

Another advantage resulting from such an institution would be, that it would lead to the investigation and establishment of those *principles of discipline and government* most likely to promote the progress of children and youth in the acquisition of intellectual and moral excellence. How sadly vague and unsettled are most of the plans in this important part of education, now in operation in our common schools. What is the regular and well-defined system of praise and blame; of rewards and punishments; of exciting competition or appealing to better feelings; in short, of cultivating the moral and religious temper of the pupil, while his intellectual improvement is going on, which now pervades our schools? Even the gardener, whom you employ to deck your flower beds, and cultivate your vegetables, and rear your fruit trees, you expect to proceed upon some matured and well understood plan of operation. On this subject I can hardly restrain my emotions. I am almost ready to exclaim,—shame on those fathers and mothers, who inquire not at all, who almost seem to care not at all, with regard to the *moral discipline* that is pursued by instructors in cultivating the temper and disposition of their children. On this subject, everything depends on the character and habits of the instructor; on the plans he lays down for himself; on the modes by which he carries these plans into effect. Here, as in everything else, *system* is of the highest importance. Nothing should be left to whim and caprice. What is to be this system? Who shall devise it? Prudence, sagacity, affection, firmness, and above all, *experience*, should combine their skill and effort to produce it. At such an Institution as I have proposed, these requisites would be most likely to be found. Then might we hope to see the heart improved, while the mind expanded; and knowledge, human and divine, putting forth its fruits, not by the mere dint of arbitrary authority, but by the gentler persuasion of motives addressed to those moral principles of our nature, the cultivation of which reason and religion alike inculcate.

In addition to all this, suppose that some intelligent and respectable individual, after having made himself master of the subject in all its bearings, and consulted with the wise and judicious within his reach, who might feel an interest in it, should prepare a *course of lectures*, and spend a season or two in delivering them in our most populous towns and cities. The novelty of this, if no other cause, would attract a great many hearers. Such an individual, too, in his excursions, would have the best opportunity of conferring with well-informed and influential men; of gaining their views; of learning the extent and weight of all the *obstacles* which such a project would have to encounter, and the *best modes* of removing them; and, if it should indeed appear in its favour.

If the experiment could, at first, be made upon a *small scale*; if such an Institution could be moderately endowed with funds sufficient to support one or two professors, and procure even the elements of a library, afterwards to be enlarged, as private or public bounty might permit; if it could be established in some town large enough to furnish from its youthful population pupils to form its *experimental school*; and if only a few young men, of talents and worth, could be induced to resort to it, with an intention of devoting themselves to the business of instruction as a *profession*,—it would not, I think, be long before its practical utility would be demonstrated. The instructors, although few in number, who would, at first, leave the Institution, would probably be located in some of our larger towns. Their modes of instruction would be witnessed by numbers of the influential and intelligent, and, if successful, would soon create a demand for other instructors of similar qualifications. And as soon as such demand should be produced, other individuals would be found willing to prepare themselves to meet it. And thus we might hope, that both private and public munificence, so bountifully bestowed, at the present day, on other useful objects, would eventually contribute a portion of its aid to an establishment designed to train up our youth more successfully to derive benefit from all the *other efforts of benevolence, or institutions of literature and religion*, which are so widely extending their influence through every part of our highly favored country.

Another obstacle, in the prosecution of such a plan, is the difficulty of inducing young men of character and talents to embark in it, and to devote themselves to the business of instruction for life.\* I cannot but hope that the time is not far distant, when the education of youth will assume, in the minds of intelligent and pious individuals, its proper place among the various other benevolent exertions which are made, through the aids of private and public bounty, for meliorating the temporal and eternal condition of man. In the meanwhile, cannot a few young men, of talents and piety, be led to feel that the thousands of our rising generation, the hope of the church and the state, have strong claims upon their benevolence; and that to consecrate their time and their efforts to such an enterprise, may be as much their duty

\* While the writer, in this essay, urges the importance of making the teaching of children and youth a *profession*, to be pursued as an occupation for life, he is fully aware of the difficulties attending the subject, in the state of society in this country. He would have every thing done that can be, to give efficacy and success to the plan of employing good teachers from among such as can give only a short time to the employment. This mode, too, has some advantages. But the other mode has peculiar and great advantages. At any rate, there is no danger, at present, of having too many good teachers who are willing to make it a profession.

as to engage in the missionary cause? Missionaries make great sacrifices, and practice much self-denial, and endure weighty labors, without any prospect of temporal emolument, in order to train up *heathen youth* for usefulness in this world, and for happiness in the next; and cannot those be found who will undergo some sacrifices, and self-denial, and labour, to bring about so great a good as a reformation in the instruction of those youth who are *bone of our bone, and flesh of our flesh*? Only admit the importance of the object, (and who can deny it?) and it almost looks like an impeachment of their Christian sincerity, to suppose that among those hundreds of young men who are pressing forward into the ranks of charitable enterprise, none can be persuaded to enter upon a domestic field of labor, which promises so much for the advancement of the Redeemer's kingdom. No, only let the project be begun, let the way of usefulness be opened, let the countenance and support of even a few pious and influential individuals be afforded, and I am persuaded that agents to carry on the work, at least to commence it, will not be wanting.

The difficulty is not in being unable to procure such agents: it lies deeper: it arises from the very little interest that has yet been taken in the subject; from the strange neglect, among parents, and patriots, and Christians, of a well-digested and systematic plan for the education of children and youth; from the sluggish contentment that is felt with the long established modes of instruction; and from the apprehensions which some entertain, that all improvements are either unsafe or chimerical.

*But these young men are poor, and cannot defray the expense of a preparatory education at such a seminary as has been proposed.*

Poor young men are taken by the hand of charity and prepared for other spheres of benevolent exertion;—and shall this wide, and as yet almost uncultivated field of benevolence be quite neglected, for the want of a little pecuniary aid? Who gave the first impulse to Foreign Missionary efforts? Was nothing done until the whole Christian public was awakened to a sense of its duty? Did this mighty enterprise begin in the collected councils of the grave and venerable fathers of the church? Was the whole plan of operation digested and matured in all its parts, and no steps taken until all obstacles were removed, and patronage, and influence, and means collected and concentrated to insure the successful prosecution of the vast design? No; long, long before all this complicated machinery was put in motion, the master-spring was at work, and a few pious and prayerful young men gave an impulse at first to private zeal, and afterwards to public co-operation, and the result fills us with gratitude and astonishment.

Let a MILLS and his associates arise to a hearty engagedness in the project of diffusing throughout our country a *common, for the best mode of conducting the education of youth; let their faith be strong, and their perseverance unwavering; and influence and wealth will soon contribute their share in the prosecution of the work; poverty on the part of those who are willing to endure the heat and burden of the day, will cease to be an obstacle in the way of accomplishing their benevolent designs. Providence can, in this, as in all the other departments of his dispensations, make even the selfish passions of our nature contribute to the promotion of good and charitable exertions.*

Those who should devote themselves to the business of the instruction of youth as a profession, and who should prepare themselves for it by a course of study and discipline at such a Seminary as I have proposed, would not find it necessary as our missionaries do, to depend on the charity of their countrymen for support. Their talents, their qualifications, and their recommendations, would inspire public confidence, and command public patronage. For experience would soon prove, if it cannot be now seen in prospect, that to save time in the education of youth, and to have this education complete instead of being imperfect, and to prepare the youthful mind for accurate thought, and correct feeling, and practical, energetic action, in all the business of life, is to save money; and even those who now expend a few dollars with so niggardly a hand, in the education of their dear, immortal offspring, would soon learn how to calculate on the closest principles of loss and gain in the employment of instructors, and be willing to give twice as much, to him who would do his work twice as well and in half the time, as they now give to him who has neither skill nor experience in his profession.

Am I extravagant in these speculations? I think I am not; and if my readers will exercise a little more patience, I hope to show, that in adopting the plan which I have proposed, there will be an actual saving of money to individuals and to the state, in addition to those numerous advantages in a social, political, and religious point of view, that would result from it, and which are, if I mistake not, so great, that if they could not be attained in any other way, a pecuniary sacrifice ought not for a moment to stand in competition with them.

My reasoning is founded on two positions which, I think, cannot be controverted;—that the present modes of instructing youth are susceptible of vast improvement; and that, if this improvement could be carried into operation, by having a more efficient system of education adopted, and by training up instructors of superior attainments and skill, there would be a great saving, both of time and labor, and of all the contingent expenses necessary to be incurred.

Suppose, for the sake of argument, though I believe it falls short of the truth, that eight years of pretty constant attendance at school, commencing from the time that a child begins to learn his letters, is neces-

sary to give him what is called a good English education. I do not fear to hazard the assertion, that under an improved system of education, with suitable books prepared for the purpose, and conducted by more intelligent and experienced instructors, as much would be acquired in five years, by our children and youth, as is now acquired in eight.

Now with regard to those parents who calculate on receiving benefit from the labor of their children, it will easily be seen that, by gaining three years out of eight in the course of their education, there will be an immense saving to the state. This saving alone would, I apprehend, if youth were usefully employed, more than defray the additional wages which would have to be given to instructors of skill and experience, and who should devote themselves to their employment as a profession for life. But if even the advantage to be derived from the labor of children is not taken into the account, it is evident that, for having the same object accomplished in five years that now consumes eight, you could at least afford to pay as much for five years of instruction as you now pay for eight. In addition to this, as it is the custom in many of our country towns for the instructor to board in the families of those who send children to school, there would be a saving also in this respect. There would be a saving, too, with regard to all the contingent expenses of the school, such as books, stationery, wood, &c.

In a community constituted like that of New England, where so great a proportion of its population is devoted to agricultural and mechanical pursuits, any system of education which could save to the public three years out of eight of the time and labor of all its children and youth, would, it is manifest, add an immense sum to the pecuniary resources of the country, and recommend itself to every patriot and philanthropist, even on the most rigid principles of a calculating economy.

Besides, the grand object of education—to prepare the rising generation for usefulness and respectability in life, and to train them up for a better and happier state of existence beyond the grave—would not only be accomplished in a shorter space of time, but they would be much more effectually accomplished. At present, with all the time, and labor, and expense bestowed upon it, the work is too often only half done; and the effects of our imperfect modes of instruction are to render youth far less competent to succeed in any pursuits in which they may engage, than if their education was conducted by intelligent instructors, on a well-digested plan, and made as thorough and complete as it might be.

How often has the individual of native vigor of intellect and force of enterprise to lament, through a long life of unremitting effort, his many disappointments in the prosecution of his labors! How often has the education were properly conducted, what an accession it would yield to the resources of the community, in the superior ingenuity and skill of our artists; in the more accurate and systematic transactions of our merchants; in the profounder studies and more successful labors of our professional men; in the wider experience and deeper sagacity of our statesmen and politicians; in the higher attainments and loftier productions of our sons of literature and science; and permit me to add, in the nobler patriotism, the purer morals, and the more ardent piety of the whole mass of our citizens.

I know it is no easy task to convince some minds that all these advantages yield just so many dollars and cents to the private purse, or to the public treasury. But my appeal is to those who take a more comprehensive view of what constitutes the real wealth of any community, and who estimate objects not by what they will to-day fetch in the market, if exposed to sale, but by their effects upon the permanent well-being and prosperity of the state.

With such I leave the candid consideration of the remarks which I have offered in this and the preceding essays; in the meanwhile cherishing the hope, that that Being who is now most wonderfully adjusting the various enterprises of benevolence, that distinguish the age in which we live from all others which have preceded it, to the consummation of His gracious designs for the universal happiness of man, on the principles which the gospel of Jesus Christ inculcates, and which it alone can produce, will, sooner, or later, and in some way or other, rouse the attention, and direct the efforts of the Christian world to that department of philanthropic exertion, the neglect of which must retard, if not quite counteract, complete success in all others,—the education of youth.

#### HISTORY OF NORMAL SCHOOLS, OR SEMINARIES FOR THE EDUCATION OF TEACHERS.

The following curious and valuable details on the history of their institutions, are given by Mrs. Austin, in the preface to her translation of Cousin's Report on the State of Public Instruction in Prussia.

"Schools specially destined for educating the school-master in the principles and application of his profession cannot be traced higher than the commencement of the last century. Franke, the celebrated pietist, must be regarded as their originator. Beside his noble foundations of the Pedagogium and Orphan House of Halle, stood a seminary for the instruction of teachers, whether of learned or popular schools; and under Steinmetz, and his successors in that Abatey, Klosterberge, near Magdeburg, was long a nursery from whence

school-masters trained in the principles of Franke, and the spirit of Spenerian pietism, were transplanted over the whole north of Germany. The education and the educator now became an object of general interest in Germany. From 1730, academical lectures on *Pädagogik* appear to have been regularly and universally delivered; and for philologists by profession, and those destined for teachers in the classical or learned schools, special seminaries, in which the stipendiary alumni were carefully instructed and exercised, gradually became attached to all the principal universities. Overlooking the *Seminarium doctrinæ elegantioris*, of Celarius, in Halle, the *Philological and Scholastic Seminary* of Göttingen, which owes its origin to Gesner, in 1738, was the first regular institution of the kind, an institution imitated in Jena, Halle, Erlangen, Helmstadt, Leipzig, Heidelberg, Kiel, Breslau, Berlin, Munich, Dorpat, &c. The beneficial effects of the seminaries for learned teachers, naturally directed an increased attention to the education of the inferior instructors. In Prussia, the meritorious Hecker, a pupil of the Frankean discipline, and first founder of the schools variously denominated *Burgher, Middle or Real*, had supported at Berlin, from the year 1748, a sort of nursery of popular instructors, in which Frederick 2d testified an interest. In 1752, a royal ordinance enjoined that on the crown demesnes in the Neu Mark and Pomerania, all vacancies in the country schools should be supplied by pupils from Hecker's Seminary, the king at the same time allowing an annual stipend for the support of twelve alumni of that establishment; a number which, in 1788, was raised to sixty. Basedow had the merit, at least, of concentrating public interest, on the importance of improving methods of education, although his seminary for teachers was never brought to bear; but the Canon von Rochow was the man who mainly operated a reform in the instruction of the people, and proved, by precept and example, the advantages of a more careful education of the primary school-master. The school, on his own estate of Reckahn, in Brandenburg, and those on the adjoining properties, were organized under his direction. Hither, travellers from all parts flocked to admire and imitate; in fact, from 1773, these became the model schools, to which young men from every quarter of Germany were sent, to be trained in the principles and practice of primary instruction. The good example operated. In Prussia, previous to the period of revolution, public seminaries for the education of inferior school-masters were established at Halberstadt, in 1788, and at Breslau, in 1787; while similar establishments were supported by private liberality, in Wesel by the Baron von der Reck, and in Minden by the pastor Herbing. During the subsequent years of calamity and war, the determination previously given was necessarily retarded. In 1806, there existed 147 school-masters. These are now nearly quadrupled.

"The other states of Germany have not, however, lagged behind the country in which these institutions originated; and the lesser states have been even more forward than the greater. Though far inferior to most of the German principalities, in the education of the lower orders, Hanover has one of her seminaries for the training of primary school-masters, which dates from 1750. Previous to the French revolution, there existed similar flourishing establishments in Usingen, Dessau, Cassel, Detmold, Gotha, Oehringen, and Kiel. Nor were the Catholic states less active than the Protestant in the same blessed work. In the Austrian monarchy, the improvement of popular education, and the general institution of normal schools were mainly promoted by the zeal of two eminent churchmen, Bishop von Felbiger and Dean Kindermann von Schulstein, (an auspicious name!) Their exertions date from 1770, and the reform was commenced in Bohemia. In the Bishopric of Munster, the spirit of improvement was awakened by the Baron von Furstenburg, and seminaries for school-masters established prior to the French revolution. The Bavarian reform was more recent. The spirit of amelioration was communicated from Germany to the neighboring states. Denmark became an early imitator: and seminaries for primary teachers were introduced, not only into Holstein, but into the Scandinavian provinces of that monarchy, previous to the revolutionary period."

In addition to what has been stated of the history of Teachers' Seminaries, it may be remarked generally, that within the last half century, the progress of primary instruction may be measured by the provision made for the education of teachers. In Russia, where the Emperor Alexander commenced a wise system of policy by establishing universities, academies, and district schools, the entire machinery is governed by the central Normal School at St. Petersburg. Switzerland can claim that the schools of Pestalozzi and Fellenberg were in fact the Normal schools of Europe—and some of the cantons have lately made liberal annual provision for the education of common school teachers.

In France, the first application of this grand idea was made by Napoleon, in his decree of the 17th of March, 1808, for the organization of the University establishing the central Normal School at Paris—although the first conception of it was struck out in the frenzy of the Revolution, by a decree of the National Convention in 1794.

In 1837 there were eighty-three of these seminaries in full operation, forming, as the minister of public instruction remarked, in each department a grand focus of light, scattering its rays in all directions. Holland was more slow and diffident in introducing this improvement

into her system, but she can now claim a high rank for the Normal school at Haarlem, of which we shall give an account in this number. England, with all her wealth and literature—with all her princely endowments for the education of the higher classes of society, has, till within the last few years, done absolutely nothing as a government, for the education of the poorer and working classes. The two Societies, the National, and the British and Foreign School Societies, have accomplished much. The Central School, in Westminster, and the more famous Borough Road school, are model schools, and designed to be seminaries for the education of teachers to be employed in their several schools throughout the kingdom. The last named is conducted after the system of Joseph Lancaster, and was such an one as Dewitt Clinton was anxious to have adopted in the State of New York. One of the best Lancastrian teachers in this country, Mr. Lovell, of New-Haven, was trained in that school. We shall give an account of it in some subsequent number of the Journal.

In Scotland, efforts have more recently been made, both at Glasgow and Edinburgh, to establish Normal Schools. The one at Glasgow, under the management of Mr. McCrie, is rendering great service to the cause of education in that old dominion of parochial schools.

In the United States, the Journal of Education, that able and successful pioneer in the cause of Common School improvement, was early and earnest in calling the attention of the public to the necessity of providing seminaries for teachers. The Teachers Seminary at Andover, established in 1835, was the first to go into operation; and although it could never be ranked as a completely organized Normal School, it did much to promote the cause of school improvement. New-York was the first state to take up the policy of providing partially in her "Academical Teachers Departments" for the education of her teachers. Massachusetts, as will be seen in the subsequent pages of this number, as she was the first to organize an efficient, universal system of free schools on this continent, is likely to be the first to bring the uplifting influence of Teachers Seminaries or Normal Schools to bear upon that system. And will not Connecticut, which has been quoted the world over for her munificent patronage of Common School Education, and enjoying as she does better advantages for engrating those improvements which the experience of other countries have struck out, and demonstrated to be indeed improvements, in primary schools, make one general and generous effort to place her school system on an eminence, not only on a level with, but far above the system adopted by any state or people, at home or abroad.

#### PRUSSIA.

As we purpose to present in some future number of the Journal an abstract of Cousin's Report on the system of Public Instruction in Prussia, and all of Prof. Stowe's Report which relates to the working of this system in the school rooms of that kingdom, we shall here confine ourselves to an exposition of the liberal and thorough provision which is made by this military despotic government in the formation of skillful and able teachers for her Common Schools. It may be well enough just to state that in Prussia *every child must be educated*. Every town must support schools, which carry forward children to a much higher point of intellectual and moral improvement than most of our common schools, even in the larger cities, aim at. Every school house must be built in a healthy and pleasant location, of sufficient size, and well ventilated, with a play ground and garden attached. The supervision is at once minute and comprehensive, acting on every district and family in the kingdom, and all centres for purposes of general direction and superintendence, in the Minister of Public Instruction. But above all, every teacher must be properly qualified for his responsible duties—and to enable them to become thus qualified, 47 seminaries devoted exclusively to the education of teachers for the Common Schools, are in successful operation.

This system, so comprehensive in its reach, and so complete in all its details, is the growth of about a half century—although the germ of it existed in some of the provinces of that kingdom, as the offsprings of the parochial schools established by the reformers. But fifty years ago the common school system of Prussia did not differ materially from that of many other countries in Europe. The first efficient step towards improving the system was made about 55 years ago, by a law which prohibited any young clergyman to claim a church living if he had not some years previous been a teacher in a public school. Heretofore such persons had found easier and better paid employment in private schools, or as tutors in noble families. Slight as this improvement was, it led to others more important. Men of the best talents, in not a few instances, took a strong liking to their new employment, and thus were induced to abandon all thought of preferment in the church, and to devote themselves to the office of teaching. The government, perceiving the advantage of having men of good talents who were pursuing teaching as a profession in the public schools, tried to encourage the practice by honor-

able distinctions, and pecuniary remunerations. This course soon operated to draw young men of ability into the business of public instruction. It next occurred to the government to increase the advantages of having permanent teachers, by affording young persons who prepared to teach, an opportunity of becoming thoroughly trained for the performance of their duties. Hence arose the *pedagogical and philological seminaries of Germany*. The latter class were designed principally to teach the best methods of acquiring and communicating a knowledge of the ancient languages. By the beginning of the present century, these institutions which had been confined principally to rearing up teachers for the gymnasias, or school of secondary instruction, who had previously gone through the universities, had greatly advanced education among the higher and wealthier classes of society. But their uplifting influence had not been brought to bear upon the schools of a lower grade. The masters of these schools were, ordinarily, young men in feeble health, or of bad constitutions, thereby slender, and unfit for the more rugged occupations of life; or else persons who had failed of success in other walks of business, and fled to this as the last resort for a temporary and precarious subsistence. Hence the school master was regarded as the refuse of society, instead of standing in a position of the most delicate trust, and honorable and arduous responsibility.

Experience has demonstrated the best and only thorough way of raising the condition of the lower schools, and that by raising up and employing more skillful and respectable masters. This gave rise to the establishment of *Seminaries for school masters for the lower schools*. There existed before 1800, but six of these institutions in Prussia. These had been erected by benevolent individuals at their own expense, and were very imperfectly organized. As late as 1807, the present king had succeeded, amid the disaster of war, in establishing but five, which, together with those before existing, made eleven in all. In 1810 they had increased to sixteen, and in 1826 there were twenty-eight in successful operation, and in 1837 they amounted to 47.

#### DR. JULIUS ON TEACHERS' SEMINARIES IN PRUSSIA.

##### SUPPORT OF SEMINARIES FOR TEACHERS.

The seminaries for the teachers of primary schools are entirely supported by government, from the general school fund, which has two separate divisions, the Catholic school fund, and the Protestant school fund.

The expense of these seminaries belongs to the ordinary annual budget of the minister of Public Instruction.

Some of the seminaries have ancient endowments, in landed property, which contribute to diminish the expense of the royal treasury, but the departments have nothing to spend for this part of popular education. In the year 1831, the annual expense for thirty-three seminaries amounted to nearly \$80,000; whereof the treasury had only to pay about \$60,000.

At the beginning of 1833, there were forty-two seminaries in the kingdom, with a population of thirteen millions of inhabitants. To each of these seminaries a small elementary school for children of the city is attached, but merely as a means to develop the practical skill of the future teachers. The expense of the seminaries makes nearly the fifth part of the entire expense of the primary schools. The expense of the primary schools is borne nearly in such proportions by the state, and by the parishes, or rather *Communes*, consisting of a village or a city, that the last contribute nineteen twentieths of the expenditure, and the state only one twentieth part.

##### SUBSISTENCE OF THE PUPILS.

The whole expense of the erection of seminaries, and of providing them with suitable buildings wherein the professors and the pupils live, as well as with a library, apparatus for instruction, and musical instruments for the exercise of the pupils, is borne by the state. As to the board of the pupils, it is paid for by far the greatest proportion of them, and provided for all by the state. There is only a small part of the pupils for whom the magistrates of the places of their nativity and residence, or their relatives, make a small annual payment to the treasurer of the seminary.

Those pupils which receive their education and support wholly from the state, are legally bound to fill, during a certain number of years, the situations of school masters to which they are elected, receiving always the annual salary attached to each of these situations. The length of time during which they have to fill in this way some place of school-master offered to them, is three years. Should they not choose to accept such an appointment when offered to them, they have to pay to the treasurer of the seminary where they were educated, for each year of instruction \$14, and the whole amount of their board.

Of the forty-two seminaries existing first January, 1833, twenty-eight were large, with 25 to 100 pupils. The law, which from unavoidable circumstances has not always been observed, prescribed never to have more than sixty or seventy pupils in a seminary. These seminaries were entirely supported by the state, or from their own funds. The remaining fourteen seminaries, which may be called branch seminaries, count each of them six to eighteen pupils, sometimes

under the superintendence of an experienced clergyman or rector; and in these the state contributes only a part of their income.

In some of the larger seminaries the state gives, besides board, a small gratuity to some of the best and most informed pupils, who act as assistant teachers of their younger fellow students.

The number of pupils in these forty-two institutions amounted, at the above mentioned period, to more than two thousand, the number of situations for school-masters, to about twenty-two thousand, and the number of pupils formed for these institutions, annually leaving the seminaries, to about eight or nine hundred. The annual vacancies in the situations of school-masters amount to about three or four per cent; so that, with due allowance for pupils selecting other situations, or retained by bodily infirmities there, there still remains a sufficient number of candidates for such appointments, and the possibility of making their examinations as rigorous as they ought to be.

##### DURATION OF THE COURSE.

The usual length of the course of education in the seminaries is *three* years, each year having two terms. In the smaller, or branch seminaries, forming school-masters for the poorest and most thinly inhabited villages, the course is limited to two years.

The school-masters which have an appointment are sometimes (perhaps every year) assembled at the nearest seminary for the purpose of receiving there, during three or four weeks, a term of instruction on methods newly invented, in the progress of the art of teaching.

Besides this, the most distinguished or most active school-masters receive from the Consistory of the province, small premiums, in money, or books. The school-masters of the circles, (nearly equal to one or two townships,) have, under the protection of the government, weekly conferences, where they discuss the different methods of instruction, comment on new works on education, keep exact minutes of these transactions, and read their own observations or papers on these subjects.

##### SUBJECTS OF STUDY.

The age of entering into the seminaries is between sixteen or eighteen years, and the pupils are free from any service in the army or in the militia during times of peace.

The seminaries, wherein no pupil can be received who has not gone through the elementary instruction, or whose morality is subjected to the least doubt, are destined to form teachers for the elementary or primary schools, as well as for the middle, or citizens' schools, where no instruction in the classical languages is given. The parts which constitute the course of instruction for such teachers are.

1. Religion. *Didactical instruction on the religious and moral duties of man.*

2. The German language in an etymological and grammatical point of view. Exercises in expressing thoughts and reasoning orally and by writing.

3. Mathematics. Arithmetic as well from memory or intellectual as by putting down the numbers, geometry, stereometry, and trigonometry.

4. A knowledge of the world, consisting in an acquaintance with the most important events or objects in history, natural history, natural philosophy, geography and cosmology or physical geography.

5. Musical instruction, consisting in the theory and practice of singing, theory of music, instruction in playing on the violin and the organ.

6. Drawing, according to the system of Peter Schmid, and penmanship.

7. The theory of education, the theory and practice of teaching, and their connection with religious service, the liturgy.

8. Gymnastic exercises of all kinds.

9. Where it is practicable, theoretical and practical instruction in horticulture, in the cultivation of fruit trees and in husbandry. In the country, the dwelling house of the school-master has a garden, serving as a nursery and an orchard, for the benefit of the school-master who lives there, without paying any rent or local taxes, and for the instruction of the village. In later years the rearing of silk-worms and the production of silk, has been frequently tried by the school-masters in the country, the government furnishing mulberry trees and other materials.

What is still more important than this complete course of instruction, is the spirit of religious and moral industry and self-denial which pervades the seminaries, continually supported and inculcated by the directors, all highly distinguished men of piety and learning, and by the strict discipline under which the pupils live, without feeling themselves fettered by it.

##### EXTENT OF STUDIES.

The answer to this question may be found already in the preceding one. On the whole, the school-master is so trained, that he may form, in connection with the rector, even of the remotest village, where the last mentioned is always president *ex officio* of the school committee elected by the inhabitants, a central point of religious, moral and intellectual information, sending its beneficent and cheerful beams through the whole extent of the little community.

This whole system of instruction tends to a religious and moral end, and rests on the sacred basis of Christian love. As the most affecting

and indeed sublime example of this spirit, I mention the little, or branch seminaries, for training poor school-masters in such habits and with such feelings as shall fit them to be useful and contented teachers of the poorest villages. Here is poverty, to which that of the poorest laborers in this country is affluence; and it is *hopeless*, for to this class of school-masters no idea is held out of advancement or change. Yet if ever poverty on earth appeared serene, contented, lofty, beneficent, it is here. "Here we see," as the well informed English translator of Cousin's Report on the state of public instruction in Prussia, says: "Here we see men in the very spring-time of life, so far from being made, as we are told men must be made, restless and envious and discontented by instruction, taking indigence and obscurity to their hearts for life; raised above their poor neighbors in education, only that they may become the servants of all, and may train the lowliest children in a sense of the dignity of man, and the beauty of creation, in the love of God and virtue."

#### APPARATUS.

The first thing requisite for the larger seminaries is a house, with ground for gymnastic exercises, for horticulture, and an orchard with fruit trees, to teach pomology, &c., attached to it.

Besides this a library composed principally of works on theology, moral philosophy, the art of teaching, and systems of education, historical and geographical compendiums, books on natural history, natural philosophy, husbandry, cultivation of fruits and vegetables, rearing of bees and silk-worms, the German classics, and musical works and compositions. Farther, a number of musical instruments, violins, flutes, pianos, and a large organ.

The apparatus for chemistry and natural philosophy, comprises only those instruments which are requisite for those primary branches of both sciences that may be of use to the future school-master; and also a small cabinet of natural history, consisting of minerals, plants, and animals.

#### NORMAL SCHOOLS IN FRANCE.

The law of "primary instruction," which, under the administration of the most enlightened men in France, is doing so much to elevate the standard of common school education in that kingdom, is as complete in its general plan and minute details as any with which we are acquainted, unless it is that of Prussia, from which it is avowedly modelled.

But this most desirable, and as we think indispensable element, in any complete system of common school instruction—good teachers, is not left to chance. Adequate provision is made for the training of school-masters to the skilful discharge of their arduous duties. For, as M. Guizot justly and eloquently observes in his speech on introducing the law in the Chamber of Deputies,—

All the provisions hitherto described would be of none effect, if we took no pains to procure for the public school thus constituted, an able master, and worthy of the high vocation of instructing the people. It cannot be too often repeated, that it is the master that makes the school. And, indeed, what a well-assorted union of qualities is required to constitute a good school-master! A good school-master ought to be a man who knows much more than he is called upon to teach, that he may teach with intelligence and with taste; who is to live in a humble sphere, and yet to have a noble and elevated mind, that he may preserve that dignity of sentiment and of deportment, without which he will never obtain the respect and confidence of families; who possesses a rare mixture of gentleness and firmness; for, inferior though he be in station to many individuals in the *commune*, he ought to be the obsequious servant of none;—a man not ignorant of his rights, but thinking much more of his duties, showing to all a good example, and serving to all as a counsellor; not given to change his condition, but satisfied with his situation, because it gives him the power of doing good; and who has made up his mind to live and to die in the service of primary instruction, which to him is the service of God and his fellow-creatures. To rear masters approaching to such a model is a difficult task; and yet we must succeed in it, or else we have done nothing for elementary instruction. A bad school-master, like a bad parish priest, is a scourge to a *commune*; and though we are often obliged to be contented with indifferent ones, we must do our best to improve the average quality. We have, therefore, continues M. Guizot, availed ourselves of a bright thought struck out in the heat of the Revolution, by a decree of the National Convention, in 1791, and afterwards applied by Napoleon, in his decree, in 1808, for the organization of the University, to the establishment of his central Normal School at Paris. We carry its application still lower than he did in the social scale, when we propose that no school-master shall be appointed who has not himself been a pupil of the school which instructs in the art of teaching, and who is not certified, after a strict examination, to have profited by the opportunities he has enjoyed.

The law declares that there shall be one Normal School for every department, unless it may be necessary at first to make one sufficient for two or more. The following account of their organization and condition we copy, with some alterations and additions, drawn from official documents, from an article in the *Edinburgh Review*:

In 1829, the number of Normal schools in France was *thirteen*; at the close of 1832, it was *forty-seven*; in March, 1834, *sixty-two*. Of these sixty-two, fifty-four correspond to the same number of Departments, each department having one; of the remaining eight, each serves for two or more departments; so that out of the eighty-six departments composing the French monarchy, seventy-three have now the certain prospect of drawing their future supply of parochial teachers from a Normal school. Thirteen only are unprovided, and eleven of these were busy in making arrangements for supplying the deficiency, when the last returns were made.

The sixty-two Normal schools already in activity, are attended by 1944 *pupil-teachers*, who may be regarded as the capital out of which vacancies, as they occur in the primary schools, are to be supplied. The entire number of parish school-masters in the 73 Departments provided with Normal schools, is 26,565, among whom the average annual mortality is one-twentieth, or 1328. A supply of accomplished young teachers, to this amount, can scarcely as yet be expected from the Normal schools, many of which are still in their infancy; but the object of the government, and they have already secured the means of attaining it, is to adjust, as nicely as possible, the supply of qualified teachers from these institutions, to the demand created by the death or removal of masters. The sure prospect of an excellent education, and subsequently of employment as school-masters, together with exemption from military service, has already begun to make this profession more popular than the clerical; and to attract to it a class of young men who are able, and, for such advantages, willing, to pay the whole cost of their maintenance, or the difference at least between that and any little assistance they can obtain in the shape of an exhibition or bursary.

The sum required to cover the expenditure, ordinary and extraordinary, of 1834, in carrying into effect the government plan of Normal schools, is calculated by the Minister of Public Instruction at 1,532,000 francs, or about \$300,000;—an amount, we presume, much beyond what will be necessary when the first outlay is over, and the annual charges alone are to be met. Of this sum, raised from various sources, by far the greatest proportion is borne by the Departments. In most cases, they have voluntarily burdened themselves to the full amount required; where negligence or backwardness is shown, the law arms the Executive with power to enforce payment of their quota from the defaulters.

The annual cost of each pupil, including maintenance, education, and every thing else but clothing, is estimated at 400 francs, or about \$80. As one means of meeting this charge, Exhibitions or Bursaries are created, one of which, if enjoyed entire, will defray the whole expenses of the holder. But they are generally granted in halves and quarters, the rest of the expense being made up from the pupil's own resources. The *Communes*, the University, and the Departments, are all expected to found bursaries, which originate also occasionally from the bounty of individual donors and benevolent associations. It is only when all these sources are insufficient, that the State comes in to supply the deficit. M. Guizot states, that of the 1944 pupil teachers now in attendance, 1308 are bursars of the Departments; 118 of the *Communes*; 245 of the State; and 273 are maintained at their own expense.

Every candidate for admission to these institutions, and to the enjoyment of a *bourse*, or any part of one, must bind himself to follow the profession of a parish school-master for ten years at least after quitting the institution; and to reimburse it for the whole expense of his maintenance, if he fail to fulfil his decennial engagement. He must have completed his sixteenth year; and besides the ordinary elementary acquirements, must produce evidence both of good previous character, and of general intelligence and aptitude to learn. Most of the bursaries are adjudged upon a comparative trial among competitors, who are likely to become every year more numerous: and the examination for admission is so well arranged and conducted, that it tends to raise higher and higher the standard of previous acquirement.

The course of instruction and training to which the youth is thus introduced, occupies two years of eleven months each, i. e. from the 1st October, to the 1st of the ensuing September, and embraces the following objects:—

1st. Moral and religious instruction. The latter, in as far as it is distinct from the former, is given by the clergyman of the particular faith which the pupil happens to profess.

2d. Reading, with the grammar of their own language.

3d. Arithmetic, including an intimate and practical acquaintance with the legal system of weights and measures. This knowledge is made to hold so prominent a part in the program of instruction, as affording the best means of introducing that admirable system into the habits of the French people, among whom, from ignorance and prejudice, it is still far from being generally adopted.

4th. Linear drawing, and construction of diagrams, land-measuring, and other applications of practical geometry.

5th. Elements of physical science, with a special view to the purposes of ordinary life.

6th. Music, taught by the eye as well as by the ear.

7th. Gymnastics.

8th. The elements of general geography and history, and the particular geography and history of France.

9th. The pupils are instructed, and, wherever the locality admits,

exercised also, in the rearing of esculent vegetables, and in the pruning and grafting of trees.

10. They are accustomed to the drawing out of the simpler legal forms and civil deeds.

A library for the use of the pupils is fitted up within the premises; and a sum is set apart every year for the purchase of such works as the Council of Public Instruction may judge likely to be useful to the young school-masters. The course of study is, for the present, limited to two years, instead of three, which is the term ultimately contemplated as the most desirable. During the second of those years, instruction in the principles of the art of teaching is kept constantly in view; and for the last six months, in particular, the pupils are trained to the practical application of the most approved methods, by being employed as assistants in the different classes of the children's schools, which are invariably annexed to the Normal, and form part and parcel of the establishment. The immediate control and management of the whole is committed to a director, who is appointed by the Minister of Public Instruction, upon the presentation of the Prefect of the Department and the Rector of the Academy. The director, besides general superintendence, is charged with some important branch of the instruction; the rest is devolved on his adjuncts, or assistant masters, who reside in the establishment.

One of the most important features of the Normal system, is the part performed by the *Commissions d'examen*, or *Commissioners of primary instruction*, whose office it is to conduct the examination of all the pupils of the Normal schools, as they are called. They are composed of seven members appointed by the Minister of Public Instruction, upon the recommendation of the rector of the academy. Three members at least must be selected from among those who have already exercised, or are at the time exercising the function of public teachers, and who are most likely to unite ability and integrity. It is recommended that one of the seven be a clergyman. "To act," says the Minister, in a circular addressed to each of the twenty-six Rectors,—"to act in concert with the three members belonging to the body of Public Instruction in these *Commissions d'examen*, a minister of religion will doubtless be summoned. The law has put moral and religious instruction in the foremost rank; the teacher, therefore, must give proof of his being able to communicate to the children entrusted to his care, those important ideas which are to be the rule of their lives. Doubtless every functionary of public instruction, every father of a family who shall be placed on this commission by your recommendation, as rector of the academy, will be fully able to appreciate the moral and religious attainments of the candidates; but it is, nevertheless, fit and proper, that the future teachers of youth should exhibit proof of their capacity in this respect, before persons whom their peculiar character and special mission more particularly qualify to be judges in this matter."

The most important of all the duties devolved upon these examining commissions, is that of conferring on the pupil, when he quits the institution, a *brevet de capacité*. Carelessness, partiality, or ignorance, in the discharge of it, would entirely defeat the main object of the law on Primary Instruction. This *brevet*, certifying the holder's fitness to be a teacher, either in the lower or higher grade of primary schools, constitutes his passport to the labors and honors of his profession. With it and his certificate of good conduct in his pocket, he may carry his skill and industry to any market he pleases, without further let or impediment.

One hundred and fifty-six of these Examining Commissions, which is not far short of two for each Department, have been in activity during part of the last and present year, (in 1833 and 34.) In that space of time they have issued 1891 *brevets de capacité*, 1655 for the lower degree, and 236 for the higher; and every one of both kinds characterized by the examiners as either *tres bien*, or *bien*, or *assez bien*; and upon these *brevets* appointments have taken place, within the same period, of 1074 masters to primary schools of the *elementary* class, and five to those of the *superior*. We have little doubt that when the Normal system is matured, and its organization complete, the principle of emulation among pupils subjected to its wholesome and invigorating course of discipline, will act so strongly, that the number of applicants for the inferior degree will be diminished, or that the qualification required for it, which, of necessity, is kept low at the outset, will be raised.

M. Guizot, in concluding his able speech, thus expresses himself:

In framing this bill, it is experience, and experience alone, that we have taken for our guide. The principles and practices recommended have been supplied to us by facts. There is not one part of the mechanism which has not been worked successfully. We conceive that, on the subject of the education of the people, our business is rather to methodise and improve what exists, than to destroy for the purpose of inventing and renewing upon the faith of dangerous theories. It is by laboring incessantly on these maxims, that the Administration has been enabled to communicate a firm and steady movement to this important branch of the public service; so much so, that we take leave to say, that more has been done for primary education during the last two years, (1831, 1833), and by the Government of July, than during the forty years preceding, by all the former Governments. The first Revolution was lavish of promises, without troubling itself about the

performance. The Imperial Government exhausted itself in efforts to regenerate the higher instruction, called secondary; but did nothing for that of the people. The restored Dynasty, up to 1828, expended no more than 50,000 francs annually upon primary instruction. The Ministry of 1828 obtained from the Chamber a grant of 300,000 francs. Since the Revolution of July 1830, a million has been voted annually—that is, more in two years than the restoration in fifteen. Those are the means, and here are the results. All of you are aware that primary instruction depends altogether on the corresponding Normal schools. The prosperity of these establishments is the measure of its progress. The Imperial Government, which first pronounced with effect the words, Normal schools, left us a legacy of one. The Restoration added five or six. Those, of which some were in their infancy, we have greatly improved within the last two years, and have, at the same time, established thirty new ones; twenty of which are in full operation, forming in each department a vast focus of light, scattering its rays in all directions among the people.

#### HOLLAND.

##### PRIMARY NORMAL SCHOOL AT HAARLEM.

The following interesting and important account of the Primary Education in Holland, from the pen of M. Victor Cousin, is the translation of part of an article which appeared some short time ago in a French periodical.

"The Primary Normal School of Haarlem, in the centre of Holland, is an establishment of the Dutch government. From the circumstance of having been founded so long ago as 1816, it has had sufficient time to become settled, to develop itself, and to show how much it is capable of effecting. The reputation of its director, whom M. Cuvier has already distinguished as an excellent master, and as an author of valuable educational works, is very great; indeed he is held up as the model of what a school-master ought to be. As an additional advantage, this Primary Normal school has been organized under the eyes of M. Van den Ende, general inspector of primary instruction, the individual who, with the celebrated Orientalist, M. Van der Palme, was mainly instrumental in arranging the law of 1806, and attended to its execution; he is considered in Holland as one of the fathers of the education of the people. An interesting conversation took place between M. Cousin and M. Van den Ende, of which the following is a brief account:"

"For fear of too much fatiguing M. Van den Ende, (who is aged and in delicate health,) I determined upon consulting his experience upon a limited number of questions, among which I placed in the first rank religious instruction in the primary schools, and generally attached to the practice in Holland; and he said,—'Yes, the primary schools ought to be in an extended sense Christian, but neither Protestant nor Catholic. They ought to belong to no particular sect, nor to teach any creed, in order that even the Jews, without prejudice to their faith, may attend them. A school for the people should be for the entire people. I do not approve of the master of the school giving any doctrinal instruction; it is the business of the clergy to impart instruction of this description out of school. I permit the master, in certain cases only, to have the catechism repeated; and even this not without inconvenience. You are in Holland, where the spirit of Christianity is widely spread, and still where great tolerance has existed for ages among the different sects.' He appeared to me to fear the intervention of the priest or clergyman in the inspection of the school; a matter to which they attach so great importance in Germany, and upon which I have myself so much insisted."

"We then proceeded to converse with regard to the inspection of schools, and the mode of effecting it. 'As for that matter,' said he, 'persons who undertake it as a profession are necessary.' He regretted much that our law of 1833 had not instituted special inspectors, nominated by the government, as in Holland and Germany, and as I pointed out in my report upon Primary Instruction in Prussia; and it was with great pleasure that he learned from me, that we had since supplied this deficiency, and that we now have an inspector of primary education in each department. 'But,' said he, 'your mutual instruction! what are you doing on this head? Do you hope, with such a mode of teaching, to be able to form men? For this is the true object of education. The different descriptions of knowledge imparted at school are but means, the value of which must be estimated by a reference to this end. If you would really attain it, mutual instruction must be given up; this may indeed impart a certain quantity of instruction, but never effect education; and let me repeat it again, sir, education is the object of instruction.'

"'Nothing is more evident,' I replied; 'and, for my part, looking upon the subject as a philosopher and moralist, I regard simultaneous instruction, when private instruction cannot be had, as the only method which is suited to the education of a moral being; but I am still constrained to avow, that mutual instruction has still, in France, a popularity which is much to be deplored.'

"'Whence comes this,' said he, 'in a nation as intelligent as is yours?'

"'From a fatal circumstance, of which the consequences are still affecting us. Under the Restoration, the government endeavored to place primary instruction back into the hands of the clergy. The Op-

position went to the contrary extreme. Some individuals, well-intentioned, but superficial, and entirely unacquainted with the subject, having been by chance in England, in the half-barbarous manufacturing towns of that country, where, for want of better schools, they are but too fortunate to have the Lancasterian, mistook for a *chef-d'œuvre* that which was but the infancy of the art, and allowed themselves to be dazzled by the sight of innumerable classes directed by a single master, assisted by little monitors taken from among the scholars. Some persons perceived a great economy in this mode of instruction; and then the eye was pleased by the order and mechanism of the exercises. It was this instruction, completely material, that they opposed to the ecclesiastical schools of the Restoration. Unfortunately, mutual instruction has survived the struggles which preceded 1830. Simultaneous instruction, however, is making a progress step by step, and honest and disinterested persons are commencing to be alive to it. In Germany mutual instruction is held in little estimation; and I did not find in the whole extent of Prussia a single master who approved of it. Nor have I seen a school for mutual instruction either at La Haye, or at Leyden. 'You will not,' he replied, 'find a single such school in the whole of Holland. And it is not that we are ignorant of what mutual instruction is; we have studied it, and it is because we have done so that we reject it. *La Société du Bien Public*, which you, without doubt, are acquainted with through the report of M. Cuvier, proposed as a question the advantages and disadvantages of mutual and simultaneous instruction. The work which gained the prize examines with the greatest minuteness the method of mutual instruction, and convicts it of insufficiency upon all points where there is a question of education. The author of this work is M. l'inspecteur Visser.'

Quitting M. Van den Ende, M. Cousin then visited M. Prinsen, the director of the Normal School.

'I explained to him my object. 'I desire,' I said, 'in the first instance, to learn the constitution of the Primary Normal School of Haarlem, both its character and principles. I shall then beg of you to let me see it in action; allowing me in your company, to inspect it myself,—first of all the rules, then the results.'

'Can you communicate to me the rules of your school?'—There are no rules,' replied M. Prinsen.

'The Primary Normal School of Haarlem is one in which the scholars are not boarded. Each pupil has a salary from the Crown, with which he provides for himself in town. No individual can be admitted who is not at the least fifteen years of age. Pupils come from all parts of the kingdom; they are admitted upon the reports of the inspectors, and nominated directly by the ministry. There are three months for trial, during which the director makes himself acquainted with the capacity of each pupil. After the expiration of this period of probation he makes a report to the ministry, and upon this report the pupils are definitely admitted, when the real Normal School course commences. There are altogether forty pupils. The duration of the whole course is four years; it regards not theory only, but practice also; and as they there prepare the pupils to obtain the highest class in the examination of fitness (which answers to our highest degree of primary instruction,) and since in Holland this cannot be obtained before the age of twenty-five, it has been conceived that four years were not too much for the purpose of following the whole course of studies and exercises necessary for the formation of an accomplished school-master. The greater part of the scholars remain four years at the Normal School; but they are not under the obligation to remain the whole of that time, for, although all prepare for the highest class, but very few pretend to it. The inferior schools are the great concern of the state; and it is for them that the Normal School labors, although it gives a higher education.'

'1. *Studies*.—Among the various objects of study there are three, viz., the Art of Instructing, History and Physics, which, being considered as more difficult than other subjects, are taught at two different times during the period of the Normal course. The others, such as Natural History, Geography, Calligraphy, Drawing, Singing and the Mathematics, are only taught once, and in succession.

'M. Prinsen undertakes with a single assistant the most important lectures of the Normal School. These lectures take place for the most part of an evening; but it is not at that time when the true Normal instruction is effected. During the whole day the scholars are employed as assistants, and even as temporary directors in the various schools of the town, according to the degree of capacity at which they have arrived.

'There are two thousand three hundred children in the Primary Schools of Haarlem, and they form permanent means of exercising the scholars of the Normal School. These two thousand three hundred children are distributed in a sufficient number of schools to enable the scholars of the Primary Normal School to be exercised each in his turn. This number of schools is here necessary; elsewhere it is an advantage. 'The schools,' said M. Prinsen, and I was delighted to hear him say so, 'ought not to have too many scholars; for, when such is the case, the master cannot exercise such a direct influence over them as will enable them to receive a lively impression, and retain a clear recollection of what they have learned at school. Again, when each school has too many scholars, there are too few schools; and then the assistants, from the circumstance of being obliged to wait too long before becoming masters, are in their turn discouraged, fall into the routine, or abandon their profession.'

'2. *Discipline*.—This is what I was most anxious to study, more especially in a Normal School in which the pupils lodged out of the establishment. I had seen very fair schools of this description in Prussia; but the best Primary Normal Schools, the admirable establishments of Potzdam and Brühl, are boarding schools. In Prussia it is generally considered that a boarding school is the most favorable for the education of young masters; that the director can, under such circumstances, exercise a greater influence, because it is more constant; and that in having one or two schools of different degrees attached to the Normal School, the scholars can be exercised, as well as in the schools of the town away from the establishment. They also lay great stress upon the rude discipline of the school as a preparation for the severe life of a school-master. The ideas which M. Prinsen communicated to me upon the subject of out-boarders, are as follows:

'In the first place, the scholars enter the school voluntarily for the sake of perfecting themselves in a profession which they purpose to follow, and which, consequently, is the great business of their lives. They are themselves inclined to order, and have not need of the discipline of a boarding school. Every pupil is, to use the expression, under the discipline of the moral dispositions which he has brought with him to the school; those who have not these dispositions, or do not manifest their existence during the first three months, are sent away. Those who pass the period of probation know perfectly well that the least fault will be severely visited,—that they depend entirely upon the director, and that their dismissal would be caused by the slightest disapprobation expressed by him.

'They are forbidden to frequent any place of public resort. If they are seen in a public house, they are subjected to a severe reprimand, and for the second offence dismissed. They cannot absent themselves from the town for a single night without the permission of the director. They do not choose their own lodging, the director does this for them. He even pays for their board. The families who receive these scholars as boarders, are themselves interested in entering into the views of the director. It is an honor and a profit for a family of small fortune to be made choice of for receiving the pupils of the Normal School; on the slightest suspicion the scholars are taken away. The scholars are not considered in the house which they inhabit as strangers; but as members of the family, submitting to all its rules and customs. It is the business of the family always to know where their boarders are at every hour of the day. The director visits these houses every fifteen days at the least. He is in communication with the police, who never fail to give him full information of all that falls within their observation.'

'It may be perceived that this is precisely the mode of directing the out-boarding Primary Normal Schools in Prussia; and it may be seen with what facility the simple discipline of the boarding schools is supplied, how many precautions are necessary, the failure of one of which renders the whole machinery powerless. In speaking of the working of his own school, M. Prinsen said, 'Yes, with a safe conscience I declare, that in this school every thing goes on generally well; and that the examples of disorder are so rare, that they cannot be considered as resulting from the system.' M. Schreuder, who is at the head of the Normal school of Sierre, and who acted as interpreter to M. Cousin, spoke to the same effect with regard to his own establishment. 'But,' says M. Cousin, 'with such directors as M. Prinsen and him, no system is bad. It is necessary also to take into account the tranquil dispositions of the young Dutch, and the Flemish character, which does not stand in need of a severe discipline. Both these gentlemen agreed, that the system of out-boarders only suited a small town; and M. Prinsen required a town or village of about two thousand inhabitants, which should have about three hundred children to send to school for the purpose of affording means of exercise to the Normal School; and both agreed that such a school should have but a moderate number of scholars. I must not here omit to mention one of the best reasons which was given by these two intelligent individuals in support of a school of out-boarders. 'You say,' said they to me, 'that the boarding school with its severe discipline, is a better preparation for the life of a school master. On the contrary, we are convinced that a young man who has passed several years in a Normal School of boarders is extremely embarrassed when he leaves it, and becomes sole director of his own actions; whereas, in our system, a young man learns to conduct himself, to deal with mankind, and the life which he leads is an apprenticeship for the life which he is about to enter upon.' This reason has weight, and I concede that examples are not wanting of young men who, after having been saints in the boarding school, when they have once quitted it, knowing no longer how to conduct themselves, commit follies, or at any rate are incapable of moulding themselves to any other description of life than that of their convent. But I do not conceive myself called upon to decide between the two systems: each is good, regard being had to the country, the age, and, above all, to the individual whose business it is to put it into action; for I shall never cease to repeat, *As is the master, so is the school*. But the director of a Normal School of out-boarders ought to be a person of extraordinary merit, or there is an end of the establishment. The expense of the Primary Normal School at Haarlem costs the country 10,000 florins per annum—or about \$100,—for forty scholars; in this sum every expense is included,—the repair of the buildings, the furniture, and the salary of M. Prinsen, which is 1600 florins, or a little more than 131/2 per annum. The director has, in addition, an excel-

lent lodging at the Normal School. Such is the constitution of the out-boarding Primary Normal School at Haarlem. We must now make known the results, and conduct the reader in the same manner as I myself was conducted by M. Prinsen and Schreuder through the schools of the town where the young masters are exercised. I saw there young men employed in the different duties of primary instruction. They were exercised under the direction of the masters of each school, who, most of them, are old scholars of the Normal school of M. Prinsen. We went through the different degrees of primary instruction. In the first instance a poor school, that is to say, an elementary gratuitous school; then two *Tusschen-schulen*, the same as our elementary schools, supported by the payment of the scholars; and then at the last the schools called *French*, that is to say, private schools, which answers nearly to our *Ecoles primaires supérieures*, the *Bürger-schulen* of Germany. I was much pleased at the activity and intelligence of these young masters; but what most struck me was the authority of M. Prinsen. As director of the Primary Normal School, he commands the masters themselves,—and all these schools, scholars, and masters, of all degrees and all conditions, are under him, as an army under its general; all obey his voice, all are inspired by his spirit and character. The method for teaching to read, of which he is the author, is ingenious (but I could not well enter upon it here,) and is that which is universally made use of: the nine graduated tables which are made use of for carrying it into effect, are hung up in the school; and, absent or present, M. Prinsen is always there.

"I had seen in Holland primary schools of all sorts, with the exception of village schools. M. Prinsen proposed showing us some during a walk which we made in the neighborhood. Both going and returning we visited several schools, and I must here avow that I was more surprised by them than by the town schools. I believe, indeed, that M. Prinsen had not chosen the worst to show to us; but whether chosen on purpose, or offered by chance in the course of the walk, it is certain that neither in Prussia nor Saxony had I ever seen, I will not say better, but as good village schools. Imagine in a house of modest aspect, but of an exquisite and truly Dutch cleanliness, divided into two parts; on one side, a room sufficiently large to contain nearly all the children of the village, girls and boys, old enough to go to school; on the other side, the apartments of the master and his family: the room in which the school is held is lighted from above, with ventilators on the two sides; a certain number of tables, where the children are distributed according to their proficiency; a space between each table, sufficient to permit the master and scholars to move about with facility. On the walls are hung the nine tables of M. Prinsen, a large black board for the exercises, a model of the different weights and measures according to the decimal system, and that which I had not always seen in Germany, a second black table, upon which are traced some lines for receiving music, and the notes which it is necessary to write upon them for the singing lessons.

"I cannot express how much I was touched to hear them, in the little village schools, repeat at the music lesson the national air which I had already heard in the schools of La Haye and Haarlem. It is simple and noble, it rouses a love for one's country and king, and inspires the soul with many exalted sentiments. Every great nation ought thus to have a national air, which can be sung from the great theatres even to the humblest village schools. The 'God Save the King' of the English is a noble song of this description. The national song of the Dutch is an imitation of it, and this is an inconvenience.

"I attach so much importance to the cultivation of the sentiment by music, that, if I was a minister, I would not hesitate to propose a prize for the best national air suitable for the schools of the people."

B. F. DUPPA.

#### ENGLAND.

##### LORD BROUGHAM AND TEACHERS SEMINARIES.

In 1835 Lord Brougham introduced into the British House of Lords a series of resolutions, which looked to the establishment of a System of National Education for England, among which was the following: That for the purpose of improving the kind of education given at schools for the people at large, it is expedient to establish in several parts of the country, seminaries where good school-masters may be trained and taught the duties of their profession.

These resolutions were prefaced by an able and eloquent exposition of the whole subject. On this particular point he remarks:

The seminaries for training masters are an invaluable gift to mankind, and lead to the indefinite improvement of education. It is this which, above everything, we ought to labor to introduce into our system; for as there are not more than two as yet established by the intercession of individual benevolence, and as, from the nature of the institution, it is not adapted to be propagated by such efforts, no possible harm can result from the interposition of the Legislature in this department.

Place Normal Schools—seminaries for training teachers—in a few such places as London, York, Liverpool, Durham, and Exeter—so that

the west, south, north-east, and north-west of the island shall have the means of obtaining good masters, and you will yearly qualify 500 persons fitted for diffusing a perfect system of instruction all over the country. These Training Seminaries would not only teach the masters the branches of learning and science they are now deficient in, but would teach them what they knew far less—the didactic art—the mode of imparting knowledge which they have, or may acquire—the best method of training and dealing with children, in all that regards both temper, capacity, and habits, and the means of stirring them to exertion, and controlling their aberrations.

I had lately an opportunity of observing what is now doing in almost every part of France, for the truly paramount object of making education good as well as general. Normal Schools, as they are called,—places of instruction for teachers,—are every where establishing by the government. This happy idea originated with my old and venerable friend, Emanuel Fellenberg,—a name not more known than honored, nor more honored than his virtuous and enlightened efforts in the cause of education and for the happiness of mankind deserve. Five-and-twenty years ago he opened a school for the instruction of all the teachers in the Canton of Berne, of which he is a patrician. He received them, for the vacation months, under his hospitable roof, and gave them access to the lessons of the numerous learned and scientific professors who adorn this noble establishment at Heffwyl. I blush for the infirmity, the imbecility of the order he and I belong to, when I add, that the jealousy of the Bernese aristocracy prevented him from continuing this course of pure, patriotic, and wise exertion. But the fruits of his experiment, eminently successful as it proved, have not been lost. In other parts of the Continent Normal Schools have been established; they form part of the Prussian system; they have been established in other parts of Germany; and I have seen and examined them in all the provinces of France which I visited last winter. I have seen twenty in one, thirty or forty in another, and as many as a hundred-and-twenty in a third Normal School,—all teachers of youth by profession, and all learning their invaluable and difficult art. In fact, the improvement of the quality of education has everywhere, except in England, gone hand-in-hand with the exertions made for spreading it and augmenting its amount, and has never been overlooked, as often as any Government has wished to discharge one of its most important and imperative duties,—that of instructing the people.

The same views are presented in a late number of the *Edinburgh Review*, in an article from Lord Brougham's pen, on National Education, in England and Ireland. After commenting on the necessity of establishing a Board of Education, to whose superintendence the whole subject should be committed, he goes on to speak of the duties of the Board:

The next function of the Board, and one of the most important, is the improvement of teaching. For this purpose, there will be established under superintendence, schools for training teachers—what are called on the Continent *Normal Schools*. For the establishment and regulation of those, the greatest care is required; and the expense, for some years, at least, must fall upon the State. A year's instruction at least, with the help of a good model school, will be necessary to qualify teachers. If these have not already made some progress in their studies, two years may be required for this purpose. There seems no reason to apprehend that any want of competitors for the places of pupils at these Normal Seminaries will be experienced. In the Borough-road school in London there are always more applications for places than can be granted; and the advantages will be considerably greater of those who attend the public establishment. It is calculated that for £30,000 a-year, 500 teachers may be maintained and completely qualified to perform their duties. As soon as this system has been established, it is to be expected that at least as many more will flock to take advantage of it, without any additional cost to the public. Now if the Board can thus furnish a large supply of accomplished teachers, it is manifest that all schools established by individual exertion, all in which instruction is now supported by subscription, or by payments from the children, will, if left to themselves, and without any interference whatever from the Board, be disposed to take teachers from the Normal Seminary. The improved tuition at these schools will infallibly increase the number of children attending them, and the funds to be obtained for their support; and thus, without any further operation on the part of the Board than the establishment and careful superintendence of the Normal Seminaries in London, and in two or three other places, a prodigious improvement will be effected in the education of the people within the space of a very few years.

#### SCOTLAND.

##### HER PAROCHIAL SCHOOL SYSTEM, AND A GLASGOW NORMAL SEMINARY.

Scotland claims for herself a merit of having, by her act of 1616, originated the first school system, ever established for the education of the entire community. This act however, was inoperative until 1646, when a law was passed laying a tax for the support of a school house, and the payment of a school-master's salary, upon every parish in the kingdom. This law, too, did not do its beneficial work long, for it was

repealed by Charles II., in 1660, but was restored in 1696, and is still the basis of the present Parochial School System of Scotland.

The most important peculiarities of this system are, that the Bible and the Westminster Shorter Catechism must be taught in the school; and this must be taught in conformity to the Confession of Faith, which the school-master is required to subscribe. This part of the School System is under the inspection and control of the minister.

The next point is, that provision is made "for acquiring a knowledge of the Latin tongue," and "the sciences," and the amount and variety in their studies are to be determined by the lay heritors, sitting together in council.

The next feature is, that in order to secure a low rate of school fees for the working and poorer classes, (generally about fifty cents quarterly,) the landed proprietors are obliged by law to provide and maintain, in addition to a school-house, a dwelling-house for the master, with a fixed minimum salary, varying from one hundred to one hundred and fifty dollars.

This school-system regenerated Scotland. In less than a half century, instead of being, as it was in 1698, the theatre of lawlessness, and of all sorts of immorality, it was made the abode of an orderly, industrious, thrifty, and religious people. Her farmers were intelligent, her artisans ingenious, and her merchants enterprising, beyond any found in the rest of Europe. For this, she was indebted to her parochial schools. The best and greatest men whom Scotland produced during the eighteenth century, according to a distinguished author of that country, received their education at these schools, and nothing for a long time, was associated with stronger feelings of gratitude and reverence in the minds of her people, than these humble institutions, from which so much of their own happiness and prosperity, as well as the wealth and genius of the nation proceeded. For one hundred and seven years, from 1696 to 1803, nothing was done by law to give increased efficiency in extent, to her school system, and, as might be supposed, it did not keep pace with the general progress of society, and its usefulness has greatly diminished, and the public interest in it has greatly declined. Private schools arose to supply the deficiencies of the public institutions, and the best teachers finding pleasanter employment, and better compensation in the former, in a great measure abandoned the latter. According to returns of the condition of education, made a few years since, it appeared that there were about twice as many persons taught at private schools as at the public establishments—and more than fifty thousand who were receiving no education, in either public or private school. In consequence of this growth of ignorance, there has been a corresponding increase of vice and crime in Scotland, within the last half century, altogether in an advance of her increase of population.

This brief sketch of the School history of Scotland, is full of instruction to Connecticut. She, too, commenced a school system in an age of darkness and poverty, and by means of it has enjoyed peace and prosperity and republican equality within her own borders, and poured out a tide of intelligence, of enterprise and activity, which has enriched the whole length and breadth of the land. But she has gone to sleep on the good works and glorious honors of her fathers. Her School System is no longer such, in reference to the circumstances of the times, as to do away with the necessity of private schools; neither does it secure the universal education of all the children of the State. It becomes her then to ascertain her precise condition in reference to education—to see if her school system does not need revision, to be adapted to the present demands of society, and new vitality infused into some of its inefficient parts. She must cease to slumber over her schools, with a half patriarchal, half self-complacent dream that comes over her, when she thinks of their cherished time-honored offspring of her wise policy, and must do something effectual to revive them.

In 1803, Scotland did something to increase the salary of the teachers, and to introduce a classification, a gradation of schools, by authorizing the employment of assistants. But the law did not reach the seat of the evil. It did not go far enough to place the parish school on a footing with the private, in the particular of well qualified and well paid teachers; and of course, they have not been able to come up to the demands of the age, and that portion of the community who know and value a good education for their children, will not give up their own private establishments.

In the last eight or ten years, however, public attention has been turned to the subject, and from the "Report of the Glasgow Educational Society's Normal Seminary, for 1837," which we have before us, it would seem, that in the absence of efficient legislative action, that private benevolence was doing something effectual in the way of beginning to engraft some of the real improvements which the advancing intelligence and experience of modern times has devised, upon the School System of Scotland.

This Society was established many years ago, for the purpose of giving an increased efficiency to the Sabbath School, as a moral renovation of Society, by introducing infant week day schools, especially among the poorer and more neglected classes of the community. A model infant school was established for the purpose of illustrating the best modes of conducting such institutions, and of training up teachers to go elsewhere. By degrees, their plan was enlarged, so as to embrace a model juvenile school, and the training of teachers for juvenile schools. More than two hundred teachers were regularly admitted, and

passed through a regular course of training for teachers in 1835-36, in the model schools of this Society, who have gone out into the public and private schools, in various parts of Scotland. They command higher wages, and give better satisfaction.

The following extract will give an outline of a course of training to which the students who expect to teach are subjected.

On their admission, they are examined, and the amount of their elementary knowledge is ascertained, and proofs of their moral character presented. In addition to their exercises in the practical department of the two Model Schools, they have received one hour's instruction daily in grammar, roots of words, or Scripture history and geography—lessons also, of late, in sacred music and marching airs, thrice a week. The students also, in addition to this, have been examined and criticised twice a week, in rotation, at which the Secretary has presided. Two afternoons are appointed for this exercise, one in the Infant and the other in the Juvenile School, weekly. The lessons are given with the whole scholars seated in the gallery. One of the four lessons given on each occasion is from Scripture, and the other three vary—sometimes an object or a word, a noun, adjective, or adverb, &c., in grammar—a question from the Catechism—light—heat—gravitation, or any other scientific subject—a geography lesson, or one in reading—sometimes mental arithmetic, or, it may be, the formation or furniture of the school-room, or physical exercises in school or in the play-ground. Four students give a lesson in succession: a limited period is allowed to each. When this is expired they stop; and after the children have sung a few lines suitable to the subject, the student gives way to another, and so on, until the four exhibitions are completed. The whole students immediately retire to the class-room, where, from notes taken down from memory, each is required to give his opinion frankly of the exhibition of each—his attitude, manner, tone of voice, enunciation, grammar, and the whole subject and treatment of the lesson. When all the students have given their opinion, the chairman criticises both the lessons and the criticisms, and also, occasionally, enlarges upon some particular part or other of the system, suggested by the lessons previously given. The results of these stated criticisms have been both striking and useful; and many, who fancied themselves almost perfect in teaching, have been somewhat humbled when their companions proved they could not train.

Previously to receiving the Society's diploma or certificate, the Normal students have been examined, both on the theory and practice of training.

Each model school, of which there were forty-one in all, (embracing seventeen infant and twenty-four juvenile schools,) and capable of educating and training about 6000 children, are furnished with a school room, class room, play ground, with visible illustrations, maps, &c.—and are supported by small fees from the parents of the children, and by private subscription.

In 1836, the plan of the Society was still further extended. The Seminary now consists of Infant, Juvenile, and Commercial Schools, a Female School of Industry, with a class room to each model school, and thirteen for training teachers. Each of the model schools is to have a play ground for healthful exercise, and moral superintendence.

In these buildings, which from the report were estimated to cost about 45,000, not including the purchase of all the apparatus, there will be accommodation for the daily training of 100 teachers and above 1000 children, with every arrangement fitted to render the Seminary a complete School Master's College, for the cultivation and training of teachers of youth.

"The training of teachers has been too long neglected. An apprenticeship is required in every art—why not in that of the school-master? We would not employ a shoemaker, a gardener, or an hostler, unless he were trained. How infinitely more important is training to one, to whose care, for several hours a day, the minds and manners of young immortals are to be entrusted. Many teachers, in the course of time, work out a system of their own; but how often do they blunder on, for months, nay for years, to the injury of their pupils, before experience enables them to work out a system; and then, how unequal is the mode of teaching throughout the land! In education, as in every business affair, a good article will bring a good price. At present the office of school-master is not sufficiently valued: a higher rate of wages must be obtained, by endowment or otherwise; and, at the same time, we must require that they, one and all, be men of sound principles, and practically trained to the art."

The Institution is now under the superintendence and management of Mr. John McCrie, a son of the celebrated Scotch clergyman, who, to the advantage of a superior education, and of fine natural talents, is practically acquainted with the Normal Schools, in Teachers Seminaries, of France and Prussia.

The Report concludes with the following remarks on the Training System, as pursued in this Seminary. While it embraces the best elementary and scientific instruction, its foundations are laid broad and deep in the Scriptures of Divine truth.

"It takes a cognizance and superintendence of the habits as well as the principles of the children. It is not merely teaching but training; it furnishes an acquaintance with things that add to a man's happiness and comfort here, and his enjoyment through eternity—it is a training of the whole man—a carrying out the family training into the school—a sup-

planting of the *immoral* training of the street, and the perfect and powerful *sympathy* of companionship there, for the *equally perfect sympathy* of the school play ground, under the superintendence of the master. It is a truth founded on the most enlarged experience, that man arrives at the highest intellectual elevation of which he is capable, through the cultivation of his moral affections. The understanding alone is too cold a soil whereby to arrive at our highest intellectual dignity.

This Society, from its commencement to the present day, has endeavored to act on the principle of the Divine command, "train up a child in the way he should go," not the *head* of the child merely, but the child—and not merely *tell* the child how he *ought* to walk in the way, but train him in the way, in real life, of course, which necessarily implies personal superintendence and example; and where is the real life of a child so well exhibited as freely at play, among companions, and where, except at home, can he be so well superintended and trained as in a school play-ground?

In order properly to appreciate this system, we have only to contrast the habits and manners of children on the street, and of children on the play-ground of a training school. The child, under the training system, leaves the premises of the school and returns to his parents, improved not simply by the *instruction* he has received, but by the training of the play-ground *in conjunction with the school gallery*; whereas, when left to amuse himself on the streets, with street companions, unsuperintended, as when there, they all must necessarily be, he returns home more rude and worse in morals than before; whatever increase he may have received of intellectual knowledge. God alone can change the heart; but our duty is, to seek his blessing on the use of means; and if *habits* are a "second nature," how important must be the system under consideration. In the play-ground of several of the Infant and Juvenile training schools, situated in the most degraded districts of our city population, flowers have grown untouched—peas have been permitted to grow, and strawberries and currents to ripen, amidst the hilarity and joy of 150 children, daily and hourly at play.

From the facts that have come to our knowledge, during the last few years, and from the united testimony of more than 800 parents, we are fully entitled to assume, that were the whole population of our city lanes, wynds, and vennals, brought under this moral training, we would tell our city rulers, that such seminaries would be the cheapest police, and, by the blessing of Heaven, do more to prevent, consequently to diminish crime, within ten years, than all our prisons, or bridewells, or penitentiaries, or houses of refuge have done, or possibly can do, in one hundred. No maxim is sounder than this, "*Prevention is better than cure.*"

#### PROVISION FOR THE EDUCATION OF TEACHERS IN THE NEW YORK SCHOOL SYSTEM.

New York deserves the credit for taking the lead in making any legislative provision for the Education of Teachers for her Common Schools. The subject was presented to her Legislature many years ago by De Witt Clinton, in the following manner.

"Our system of instruction, (he remarks,) with all its numerous benefits, is still, however, susceptible of great improvements. Ten years of the life of a child, may now be spent in a common school. In *two years* the elements of instruction may be acquired; and the remaining eight years must be spent either in repetition, or in idleness, unless the teachers of common schools are competent to instruct in the higher branches of knowledge. The outlines of Geography, Algebra, Mineralogy, Agricultural Chemistry, Mechanical Philosophy, Surveying, Geometry, Astronomy, Political Economy, and Ethics, might be communicated in that period of time by able preceptors, without essential interference with the calls of domestic industry. *The vocation of a teacher in its influence on the destinies of the rising and all future generations, has either not been fully understood or not duly estimated.* It is, or ought to be, ranked among the learned professions. With the full admission of the respectability of several, who now officiate in that capacity, still it must be conceded, that the information of many of the instructors of common schools, does not extend beyond rudimentary education, that our expanding population requires constant accession to their numbers, and that to realize their views, it is necessary that some new plan for obtaining able teachers, should be devised. I therefore recommend a Seminary for the education of teachers in the monitorial system of instruction and in those useful branches of knowledge, which are proper to engraft on elementary attainments."

The first act was passed in 1827, adding one hundred and fifty thousand dollars to the capital of the Literature Fund, for the avowed object of promoting the Education of Teachers. This sum was distributed among the several Academies in the state without sufficient restrictions to its application. The St. Lawrence, Oxford, and Canandaigua Academies, however, each established a course of lectures and exercises for the preparation of teachers, and with the most happy results. The demand for teachers educated at these academies, to go into the district schools in the neighborhood, was greater than could be supplied, and the compensation of such teachers was cheerfully advanced.

In 1834, the Legislature authorized the "Regents of the University," to apply a portion of the income of the above Fund, to the more specific purpose of the preparation of Common School Teachers. The act was

referred to a Committee, of which the Hon. John A. Dix, was chairman, to prepare a plan for carrying into operation its provisions. The report was submitted in January, 1835, and the plan which the Committee submitted was embodied in an ordinance of the Regents and has been for four years in operation to the manifest improvement of the Common Schools. As this Report is a very able exposition of the whole subject, and from its length cannot have been very widely circulated in that state, we shall give copious extracts from it.

The Report sets forth "the leading and acknowledged defect of the Common Schools of New York, to be the want of competent teachers." Without able and well trained teachers, no plan of instruction, however excellent, no selection of books, however judicious, no system of inspection, however rigorous, no pecuniary provision, however liberal, can realize the grand results which the Law, providing for popular Education, aims at. To cure this defect, "in other countries, seminaries for the Education of Teachers, have been deemed an essential part of the system of primary instruction." The Committee however, regard the success which has marked the introduction of teachers department into the Academies named above, especially the St. Lawrence Academy, and the favor with which that experiment was received by the public, as settling the policy of the state—and they therefore devote the rest of the report to an examination of the best plan for organizing and giving efficiency to these departments of instruction.

They propose therefore to select one Academy in each of the eight senatorial districts, of the State, to give five hundred dollars to each for the purchase of a Library and apparatus adapted to the use of those who are preparing to be teachers, and from the annual surplus revenue of the Literature Fund to appropriate four hundred dollars to each of the Academies, to provide a special course of instruction in the art of teaching. This amount we believe was much augmented by the act of 1838, appropriating "the income of the United States Deposit Fund, to the purpose of education and the diffusion of knowledge."

We shall present the views of the Committee as to the organization of these departments more at length.

#### 1. As to the course or subjects of study.

"In determining the course of study, the committee have thought it proper to designate as subjects to be taught, all which they deem indispensable to be known by a first rate teacher of a common school.

"In fixing a standard of requirement in any pursuit, it is always desirable to raise it as high as possible; for the qualifications of those who follow it, will incline to range below and not above the prescribed standard. In this case, as the principal object is to influence public opinion by exhibiting the advantages of that practical skill, which may be gained by proper training, care should be taken that those who are relied on to exert the influence referred to, should be made fully adequate to the task.

"It is proper to premise, however, that no individual should be admitted to the teachers department until he shall have passed such an examination as is required by the following extract from the ordinance of the Regents of the University to entitle students to be considered scholars in the higher branches of English education.

"No students, in any such academy, shall be considered scholars in the higher branches of English education, within the meaning of this ordinance, until they shall, on examination duly made, be found to have attained to such proficiency in the arts of reading and writing, and to have acquired such knowledge of the elementary rules or operation of arithmetic, commonly called notation, addition, subtraction, multiplication and division, as well in their compound as in their simple forms, and as well in vulgar and decimal fractions as in whole numbers, together with such knowledge of the parts of arithmetic commonly called reduction, practice, the single rule of three direct, and simple interest, as is usually acquired in the medium or average grade of common schools in this state; and until they shall also, on such examination, be found to have studied so much of English grammar as to be able to parse correctly any common prose sentence in the English language, and to render into good English the common examples of a bad grammar given in Murray's or some other like grammatical exercises; and shall also have studied, in the ordinary way, some book or treatise in geography, equal in extent to the duodecimo edition of Morse's, Cumming's, Woodbridge's, or Willet's geography, as now in ordinary use."

*Subjects of study.*—1. The English Language. 2. Writing and Drawing. 3. Arithmetic, Mental and Written; and Book-keeping. 4. Geography and General History, combined. 5. The History of the United States. 6. Geometry, Trigonometry, Mensuration and Surveying. 7. Natural Philosophy and the Elements of Astronomy. 8. Chemistry and Mineralogy. 9. The Constitution of the United States and the Constitution of the State of New-York. 10. Select parts of the Revised Statutes and the duties of Public Officers. 11. Moral and Intellectual Philosophy. 12. The Principles of Teaching.

**THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE.** This branch constitutes the most extensive, and perhaps the most important, field of instruction for a teacher. Unless the pupil is thoroughly master of his own language, he cannot be a competent instructor. The utmost pains should therefore be taken to give him an accurate knowledge of it; and the proper process of instruction is that, which it will be his business to employ in giving instruction to others.

He should be made familiar with the best methods of teaching the alphabet and the stops, by which children can be conducted, with the

greatest facility, through the first lessons, which they receive. Rules for spelling should also be learned, and their application shewn, particularly in the orthography of compound and derivative words, the plurals of nouns, the inflexions of verbs and the comparison of adjectives; and in these exercises black boards or slates should be used so that the eye, as well as the ear, may be made instrumental to the correction of errors.

In reading, the lessons should embrace a just enunciation of sounds as well as words, and a careful regard to distinctness of pronunciation, as well as a proper fullness and modulation of the voice. A clear and correct enunciation is of the highest importance to a teacher, whose defects are almost certain to be communicated to his pupils; and it is, therefore, indispensable, that reading with criticisms in orthoepy, accent, emphasis, cadence, and punctuation should constitute a part of the exercises in this branch of study.

The pupil should not only be practised in reading the English language with accuracy and distinctness, but he should be taught to write it correctly. He should be made thoroughly acquainted with its structure, and its idiomatic peculiarities. In addition to the ordinary routine of parsing, the principles of universal grammar should be critically discussed, the structure and philosophy of language should be made the subject of a minute investigation, the offices, which are performed by the different words of a sentence, and the rules by which their relations to each other are governed, should be explained until the whole subject is thoroughly understood.

Original composition, and declamation from the writings of chaste authors are also an essential part of the course; the first for the purpose of facilitating a correct understanding of the laws of language, and the acquisition of a correct style, and the second for the purpose of cultivating a distinct articulation as well as a refined taste.

**WRITING AND DRAWING.** Every pupil must be able, before he leaves the institution, to write a good hand. For this purpose he should be made to practice from the beginning of the course, under the personal direction of the tutors, with the best writing materials, and with proper attention to the positions of the body, arm and hand.

For beginners, slates may be used with great advantage, as suggested in Taylor's District School.

Drawing is only expected to be taught so far as it may be necessary for the purpose of mapping. In learning geography, the pupils should be required to delineate on the black-board the outlines of the general divisions of the earth, the different countries, oceans, rivers, &c., and they should afterwards be practised in similar delineations, executed with care, on paper. In geometry, trigonometry, mensuration and surveying, linear drawing will be indispensable, and the tutors should study to convert these exercises to the best use.

**ARITHMETIC.** In all the operations performed by the pupils, in this branch, black-boards should be used for demonstrations and illustrations, and every lesson should be explained until the pupil comprehends it thoroughly. In nothing is the dependence of one step on another so complete as in the science of numbers: and if the pupil leaves behind him any thing, which he does not distinctly understand, his progress must always be difficult, and the result of his calculations uncertain. In facilitating a clear perception of abstract numbers and quantities, visible illustrations should be liberally employed. Mental arithmetic may also be advantageously resorted to, and, indeed, may be deemed indispensable, as a discipline to the mind. To all these exercises a practical direction should, as far as possible, be given, by selecting as subjects for practice those familiar operations of business, with which the pupils must become conversant in after life. Thus the mind may be strengthened by the same process, which is storing it with useful information.

"A knowledge of arithmetic enters into so many of the common operations of life that it is not only an essential part of the most ordinary education, but it should be so thorough that an application of the rules of the science may be made with ease and certainty.

**BOOK-KEEPING.** A simple course of book-keeping should be taught in every common school, and it is, therefore, an essential part of the course of instruction for a teacher.

"The method pursued in the St. Lawrence Academy is, perhaps, as concise and as likely to be successful as any that could be devised. The system contained in the first part of Preston's Book-keeping is taken as a guide. The pupil is first taught to rule his book, and is then required to carry his slate to the recitation room ruled in the same manner. For several of the first lessons, examples of accounts are taken where the articles delivered are charged directly in the individual's account. The teacher then reads the several charges, which the scholar copies on his slate: and the scholar is required, as an exercise in writing, to transfer the account to his book. The teacher then proceeds with the charges in the short specimen of day-book entries, giving as many at one lesson, as the scholar will be able to transfer with care, in the allotted time, to his day-book. When the several charges are copied into the scholar's day-book, he is required to post his book."

In this manner a sufficient knowledge of book-keeping for ordinary purposes may be readily acquired, and the student may improve as much in penmanship as though he had passed his whole time in writing after a copy.

**GEOGRAPHY AND GENERAL HISTORY.** Geography, to be profitably studied, must be continually explained by maps and the globe. Neither the artificial nor the natural divisions of the earth, nor the proportions,

which its several parts bear to each other and to its whole surface, can be readily comprehended without having recourse to visible demonstrations. To young pupils there is a difficulty, even with the aid of maps and globes, in communicating a distinct conception of the positive or relative magnitude of different countries, or the remoteness of different places from each other. Much depends on minute and patient explanation, especially in that part of geography which treats of the physical divisions of the earth, including continents, peninsulas, islands, oceans, lakes, rivers, mountains, &c.

Physical geography, or that part of the description of the earth which treats of its natural features, is of great interest and importance; the more so, as with it are necessarily interwoven matters, which in strictness belong to the department of astronomy. The figure and motions of the earth; the causes of the variation in the length of the days; the seasons; the principles upon which the tropics, and polar circles are drawn at their respective distances from the equator; the general features of the earth's surface, embracing a knowledge of the influence of elevation above the sea upon temperature, climate, productions, &c.; a description of volcanoes and earthquakes; the various theories relative to the causes of eruptions and shocks; the atmosphere, winds and their agency in the distribution of heat and moisture, embracing the subject of rain, fogs, dew, hail, &c.; the theories relative to tides; a description of the most remarkable currents in the ocean; and all those natural causes, by which the condition of the various parts of the earth are influenced, should be briefly but clearly and carefully explained.

In this branch will also be included a general knowledge of the geological structure of particular regions and their most remarkable productions, animal, mineral and vegetable. In the St. Lawrence Academy the whole subject of physical geography is systematically and critically discussed, commencing with the "history of the science and the adaptation of the objects it embraces to awaken interest by their endless diversity," and running through the details of the science in a complete course of seventeen lectures.

With a description of the different countries of the earth, some account of their inhabitants, forms of government and religion, and their general statistics must also be united.

**HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES.** The history of the United States is so essential, that it may justly be treated as a distinct branch of study. In this, a mere outline is not sufficient. The pupil should understand, in all its details, the history of his own country. He should begin with its discovery and first settlement, and trace it through the various stages of its colonial dependence to its emancipation from the control of the mother country. In the character of the men who stood foremost in the contest for independence, the measures of provocation, by which they were roused to resistance, the trials through which they passed, the reverses which they sustained, the triumphs which they achieved, and the great political principles which were vindicated by them, there are lessons of instruction not inferior in value, to any which can be drawn from the history of any other age or people; and if the mind of every youth can be made familiar with them, and his feelings imbued with the moral which they contain, no better security can be provided against the degeneracy of that unconquerable spirit, in which the foundations of our freedom were laid.

**GEOMETRY, TRIGONOMETRY, MENSURATION AND SURVEYING.** The committee regret that they cannot refer to any single work, which contains such a course on all these subjects as they deem necessary. The works on each separate subject are in general too extensive for the purpose in view. The course should be altogether practical in its character, and should be divested of every thing superfluous. The principles of geometry and trigonometry should be so thoroughly understood, that their application may be made with facility. The pupils should be able to measure solids as well as surfaces with ease; and they should be made so well acquainted with the rules of surveying, and the instruments used for the purpose, as to be able to ascertain heights and distances and determine the contents of a given piece of land, with readiness and precision.

**NATURAL PHILOSOPHY AND THE ELEMENTS OF ASTRONOMY.** The course in natural philosophy will embrace a clear understanding of the several properties of bodies, gravitation, the laws of motion, simple and compound, the mechanical powers, the mechanical properties of fluids, the mechanical properties of air, the transmission of sound, and optics. Each academy should be furnished with a complete philosophical apparatus, and all the subjects should be taught with full illustrations. A practical direction should, as far as possible, be given to the science, by teaching the proper application of its laws to useful purposes. It is from this course that those, who intend to devote themselves to mechanical pursuits, may reap the greatest benefits; and it is of the utmost importance to introduce it into the common schools. The first step towards the accomplishment of this object, is to prepare instructors competent to teach it; and it is for this reason that it should constitute a particular object of attention.

In connection with natural philosophy there should be a brief course of instruction in the principles of astronomy. The nature and causes of the earth's motions, the planets and their motions, their size and positions in relation to the earth and the sun, their satellites, the cause of eclipses, the variations of the seasons, the length of the days, the causes of heat in summer, &c., should all be made familiar to the pupils. Each academy should be furnished with an orrery, a moveable planisphere, a

tidial, and a set of globes: and nothing which is capable of being illustrated by apparatus should be taught without illustration.

The same apparatus may be employed for the illustration of subjects connected with physical geography, between which and that part of astronomy which treats of the earth's motions and the effects consequent upon them, there is a very close connexion.

**CHEMISTRY AND MINERALOGY.** The course in mineralogy and chemistry is not expected to be carried far. It is intended that each academy shall have a small cabinet of minerals; and the pupils should be able to distinguish the different specimens, which should be well characterized, and to understand clearly their composition and distinctive properties. Chemistry should be taught in such a manner as to elucidate these distinctions in the mineral kingdom, and to give a correct knowledge of the properties of the various bodies and substances, which are in most common use; and its application to agriculture and the useful arts, should be made a prominent subject of instruction. Mineralogy is usually a preliminary of the science of geology; but it is not expected that the latter will constitute a subject of study, excepting so far as it is connected with physical geography, which will necessarily embrace some account of the structure of the earth, with a description of the principal classes of rocks and the mineral and metallic substances, with which they are found united. One of the most salutary effects of combining with elementary education some knowledge of the foregoing subjects is to guard against the impositions so frequently practised upon the ignorance of the uninformed in the discovery of some unknown, and often worthless, substance, to which an imaginary value is assigned. It is exceedingly desirable to spread correct notions concerning lime-stone, gypsum, and coal, and the ores of iron, lead, copper, &c. The modes of verifying their composition should be made familiar; and it should be understood in what proportions quantity should be combined with quality in order to reward labor.

**THE CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES AND THE CONSTITUTION OF THE STATE OF NEW-YORK.** Every citizen, in order to exercise discreetly and intelligently the right of suffrage, upon which questions of constitutional power are frequently dependent, must understand the provisions of the constitution of the United States and the constitution of his own state; and there cannot, perhaps, be a better mode of attaining the object than to require each pupil to make a brief analysis of both. With regard to the constitution of the United States, he should be required to specify the qualifications and disabilities of the members of the Senate and house of Representatives, the rights and privileges of each house, the powers of Congress, the powers prohibited and reserved to the states, the limitations of the legislative, judicial and executive authorities, and the manner in which the various officers of the government are respectively chosen or appointed. In short, all the provisions of the original instrument and of the successive amendments, which have, by virtue of the proper ratifications by the states, become a part of it, should be thoroughly understood by the pupil. In like manner he should know the qualifications of the various officers of government in his own state, the several divisions of authority provided by the constitution; the organization of the legislative, judicial and executive departments; the powers respectively allotted to them; the rights of the citizens; and for the purpose of impressing strongly on the mind these fundamental principles and provisions of law, which every citizen owes it to the public and himself to understand, the pupils should be required to make an analysis of the constitution of New-York, which should be carefully examined by the instructor. In pointing out the principal and most important provisions of both instruments, so far as they confer power, or restrain its exercise, the reasons, on which the grant in the one case or the prohibition in the other is founded, should be clearly explained. Questions of disputed right growing out of the provisions of either instrument had better be passed by; but, if they are made a subject of comment, the arguments on both sides should be fairly stated. Schools for popular instruction depart from the end of their institution, when they are made subservient to the propagation of particular tenets on any subject, which is open to a diversity of opinion. In every matter, which enters of necessity into the proposed plan, it should be the aim of the instructor to furnish his pupils with all the materials for forming unprejudiced opinions, but to leave their minds free from all bias.

**SELECT PARTS OF THE REVISED STATUTES, AND DUTIES OF PUBLIC OFFICERS.** It is hardly necessary to add, that under a form of government which throws open to all its citizens the avenues to political power, it is important that all should have, in early life, a general knowledge of the duties, which they may be called on to discharge, or over the faithful performance of which, by others, it will be their province, in common with their fellow citizens, to exercise a constant supervision.

It is to be regretted that a work containing the most important principles of civil and criminal jurisprudence, cannot now be referred to, as proper to be used for the proposed course. Until such a one shall be prepared, the principles of the academies should be charged with the duty of extracting from the Revised Statutes, such portions as will show the particulars necessary to give validity to conveyances, the time limited for commencing suits, the rules relative to

fraudulent conveyances and contracts as to goods, chattels, and things in action, and the offences to which penalties are annexed.

**MORAL AND INTELLECTUAL PHILOSOPHY.** The laws which should govern all men, both with respect to the investigation of truth, and to the discharge of the duties resulting from the relations which they bear to each other, and to the author of their existence, should be familiar to every teacher, particularly as his own moral character is subject to a periodical examination by the inspectors. A knowledge of these laws is indispensable to those, whose province it will be, to watch over the development of the moral and intellectual faculties, and direct them to their proper objects.

**THE PRINCIPLES OF TEACHING.** In this branch, instruction must be thorough and copious. It must not be confined simply to the art of teaching, or the most successful methods of communicating knowledge, but it must embrace also those rules of moral government, which are as necessary for the regulation of the conduct of the teacher as for the formation of the character of those who are committed to his care.

Although this branch of instruction is mentioned last in the order of subjects, it should in fact run through the whole course. All the other branches should be so taught as to be subservient to the great object of creating a facility for communicating instruction to others.

The pupils in the departments should be practised in all that can devolve on a teacher. It is of the first importance that they should be made, each in turn, to conduct some part of the recitations, to prepare proper questions on the particular subject of study, and to illustrate it by explanations for the purpose of improving their colloquial powers, and thus giving them a facility for explaining whatever they may be required to teach in the future office of instructor. The tutor should then go over the whole ground after them, pointing out their errors or defects and giving them credit for whatever may appear to merit commendation. In this manner the future teacher will readily acquire a facility for communicating instruction, which is one of the highest elements of his art.

In all these exercises the language of the pupils should be watched and criticised, every want of perspicuity pointed out, and a rigid conformity to the true standards of etymology and pronunciation insisted on. At the same time every thing artificial or affected in tone or manner should be studiously avoided; and the pupils should be taught that elocution is always effective in proportion as it is natural and unconstrained.

They should know how to command the attention of their pupils, to communicate the results of their own researches and experience in the manner best calculated to make a lasting impression on the mind, to lead their pupils into the habit of examining for themselves, instead of being directed at every step of their progress by their instructor, and thus to observe, investigate and classify objects, to combine the fruits of their observation, and draw conclusions from the facts which they have obtained.

In carrying into execution the plan of instruction about to be established, it should not be for a moment forgotten by those who are charged with this important task, that the object of education is, not merely to amass the greatest possible amount of information, but at the same time to develop and discipline the intellectual and moral faculties.

The result of common school education in most cases is to burden the memory with facts and rules, of which, the proper practical operation is but imperfectly comprehended. This defect is at war with the spirit of the age, which is to probe to its inmost depths every subject of knowledge, and to convert the results of our inquiries to useful purposes. Practical usefulness is the greatest end of intellectual discipline; it should be kept steadily in view by the teacher, and he will soon learn that his lesson, when its reason and its object are presented to the mind of his pupil, will arouse an interest, which in the absence of this full understanding of the subject, he would have labored in vain to excite.

In determining the proper organization of the departments, the committee have fully considered the question, whether the studies and recitations should be distinct from the ordinary academic exercises; and although they are disposed to leave this, in some degree, to the discretion of the academies, yet they are decidedly of the opinion that convenience coincides with good policy in requiring that pupils, who are in a course of training for teachers, should be taught in connection with the other students.

The committee cannot forbear to add that the instructors in the academies, with which the proposed departments may be connected, should labor to impress on the minds of those, who may be preparing themselves for the vocation of teaching, a deep sense for the responsibility, which belongs to it. There is in truth, no other, in which a conscientious and discreet discharge of its appropriate duties can well produce more beneficial or lasting effects. It is from the conduct and precepts of the teacher that the minds committed to his guidance are destined to receive impressions, which may accompany the individuals through life, and give a determining cast to the character. In his demeanor they may read impressive lessons of moderation,

forbearance, and self-control; from his rules of government they may learn the value of firmness, justice, and impartiality: or they may find in exhibitions of petulance, unsteadiness of purpose, and unjust distributions of favor, a license for the indulgence of their own prejudices and passions. Nothing is more vital to the successful government of the teacher, and to the execution of his plans of instruction than a steady self-command. The most certain mode of bringing his own authority into contempt is to show that he is not his own master. The moral atmosphere of the school-room will be pure or impure according to the conduct or character of him who presides over it. On his example will, in no inconsiderable degree, depend, for good or evil, the destiny of numbers, whose influence will, in turn, be felt by the political society, in the operations of which they are to take an active part. The teacher should be made to feel so sensibly the importance of his position, that it may be continually present to his thoughts, and become the guide and rule of his actions. He should bear perpetually in mind that he is the centre of a little system, which as time advances, is destined to spread itself out and carry with it, for the benefit or injury of all which it reaches, the moral influences imparted by himself.

It must be confessed that there is much in the present prospects of those, who intend to devote themselves to the business of teaching, which is calculated to produce indifference and to damp exertion. The vocation does not now ensure constant employment, and therefore is not to be relied on as a certain support; nor does it yield rewards at all adequate to its toils and sacrifices. But it is not improbable that more liberal views will prevail in relation to the remuneration of teachers: and it is certain that the most effectual method of bringing about such a change, is a course of conduct, and an exhibition of skill on their part, which will elevate the character of their vocation, and by making the public more sensible of the value of their services, will secure a proportionate increase of compensation. Teachers should feel that without a deep interest in their occupation they cannot bring into operation the talent requisite to do themselves justice, and to convince the public of the necessity of a higher standard of education. Time may be necessary to produce upon the public mind the requisite impression, but there is no reason to doubt the result. If in the mean time they lose through the narrow views of their employers, something of the indemnity, to which they are entitled for their labors in a most difficult and responsible sphere of action, let them not superadd to this loss a sacrifice of their own reputation by a careless or imperfect discharge of their duties. Let them resolve to gain in character what they may lose in pecuniary profit; and let them be assured that if any thing can succeed in obtaining from the public the justice, which they seek, it a course of generous devotion on their part to the great cause of education. If such a course should fail to win from those, on whom they are now dependent, a corresponding return of benefits, it is to be hoped that the time is not far distant when the value of their labors will be better appreciated, and complete justice awarded to them.

## 2. As to the duration of the course.

This is necessarily regulated by the number and extent of the subjects of study. In the Prussian seminaries in which the requirements for teachers of the first grade, are about equal in importance to those which the committee have proposed for the departments in question, the term of study is three years; and they are of the opinion that a shorter period would not be sufficient for a strict compliance with the proposed course. As has already been observed, the object in view is to prepare teachers of the first grade; and every other consideration should give way to this. It should be recommended to the trustees of the academies, in which the departments may be established, to make the rate of tuition for those who intend in good faith to devote themselves to the business of teaching as low as possible; and to regulate the terms of instruction in such a manner that the pupils in the teachers' department, who are sufficiently advanced, may have an opportunity of taking schools during the three winter months. They may, by this means, earn something to enable them to complete their course of instruction, and at the same time improve themselves by making a practical application of the knowledge, which they will have gained during the rest of the year. To accomplish this object it may be necessary to have only two terms per annum of four months each. The pupils must not only be required to comply with the entire course, but they must understand thoroughly every subject of study before they receive a diploma or certificate of qualification. In this respect the Board's, from whom the evidences of qualification are to issue, must practice the greatest caution. Their own and the public interest alike demand it. The system cannot become popular, unless it is made equal to its objects. A single individual educated in one of the proposed departments, and going forth to teach with a diploma, but without the requisite moral and intellectual qualifications, would do much to bring the whole system into disrepute. The Regents should, therefore, insist strongly on the fidelity of the academies to withhold the necessary evidence of qualification to teach, from all who are not entirely worthy of it.

## 3. As to the necessary books and apparatus.

Books. Each academy should be furnished with a library well stored with the best authors on the prescribed subjects of study. The committee propose to leave the selection of the books for further consideration. A list can be made out on consultation with the academies, and presented at a future day for the sanction of the Regents. As these books will be wanted for examination and reference, several copies of the same work will be required.

The committee have had under consideration the expediency of designating all the class books which shall be used in the departments to be established, or of leaving them to be selected by the academies: and, although they deem it of great importance to reduce the course of study to the greatest possible precision, they have come to the conclusion that it is better at present to adopt the latter course.

At the same time, they would suggest that it will in general be found most advantageous to use for the instruction of teachers the books, from which they will be required to teach in the common schools. Larger and more copious treatises on all the subjects of instruction will, it is true, be necessary for the course of study in the departments: but the principal use of the latter will be for reference, and for the purpose of more full illustrations than are afforded by the smaller works.

APPARATUS. The following list includes all the apparatus and maps, which the committee deem necessary at present.

Orrery, Numeral frame and Geometrical solids, Globes, Moveable planisphere, Tide dial, Optical apparatus, Mechanical powers, Hydrostatic apparatus, Pneumatic apparatus, Chemical apparatus, 100 specimens of mineralogy, Electrical machine, Instruments to teach surveying, Map of the United States, Map of the State of New York, Atlas, Telescope, Quadrant.

4th. What evidence of qualification to teach shall be given to the individuals, who may be trained in the departments.

In the Prussian and French seminaries of teachers, different grades of qualification are recognized, and the certificates, which the pupils receive on completing their course of preparation, are framed according to their respective ability to teach. If the departments about to be established were to be adequate to supply with teachers the districts through the State, such a distinction might be desirable. But as the number of teachers will necessarily be limited; and as one of the most important effects to be anticipated and desired from the establishment of these departments is to influence public opinion, and by an exhibition of improved methods of teaching, to correct prevailing errors with regard to the necessity of providing such a compensation for teachers, as shall be in some degree adequate to the value of their services, all the pupils, who are in training, should be encouraged to complete the prescribed course of preparation, the only distinction proposed to be taken by the committee for those, who have gone through the entire course, is between those who are, and those who are not, qualified to teach: and they deem it proper to entrust the decision of this question to the principal and trustees of the academies, in which the departments may be established. They have drawn a form for a diploma which is annexed, and which from its terms can only be given to those, who have completed the course of instruction prescribed by the Regents, and have passed a satisfactory examination in all the subjects of study.

The examination should be public, and be made in the presence of the principal, and a majority of the trustees of the academy.

## DIPLOMA.

The Regents of the University of the State of New-York, having established in this institution a department for the education of common school teachers,

WE, the President of the Board of Trustees, and the Principal, of the \_\_\_\_\_ Academy, do hereby certify that A. B., of the town of \_\_\_\_\_ in the county of \_\_\_\_\_ in the State of \_\_\_\_\_ has completed the course of instruction, and passed a satisfactory examination in all the subjects of study prescribed by the Regents for the departments; that he has sustained, while at the institution, a good moral character, and that he is fully qualified to teach a common school of the first grade. In testimony whereof, we have hereunto affixed our signatures, together with the seal of the institution, at \_\_\_\_\_ in the county of \_\_\_\_\_ this \_\_\_\_\_ day of \_\_\_\_\_

18

A. B. President.  
C. D. Principal.

It may often happen that students will not be disposed or able to go through the whole of the prescribed course of instruction for teachers. In this case the principals of the academies should be at liberty to give them a certificate setting forth the particular studies they have pursued, with such opinion of their moral character and their qualifications to teach the branches which they have studied, as they may be considered entitled to. But this certificate should be merely under the signature of the principal and not under the seal of the institution; for the committee deem it of the utmost importance that no

evidence of qualification should be given, which can be mistaken for the diploma received by those who have completed the prescribed course. To avoid all misapprehension, the committee have prepared the annexed form for such a certificate.

Certificate to be given to students, who have not completed the prescribed course of instruction for teachers.

I, the Principal of the Academy, do hereby certify that A. B., of the town of \_\_\_\_\_ day of \_\_\_\_\_ 183 \_\_\_\_\_ and the State of \_\_\_\_\_ has attended a course of instruction at this institution in the art of teaching; that he has sustained a good moral character; and, although he has not completed the course of study prescribed by the Regents of the University for common school teachers, he has studied, and is competent to give instruction in the following subjects, viz:

A. B., Principal.

P. S. If the individual is not well qualified to give instruction in all the subjects of study, those which he is competent to teach, should be specified.

In concluding their report, the committee beg leave to observe, that in a matter of so much importance, in which the ground to be occupied is yet untried, many considerations may have escaped their notice, which may be disclosed when the proposed plan is put in operation. They do not present it with the confidence that it is perfect, or that experience may not dictate salutary alterations in it, but as the best, which, with the lights before them, they have been able, after full consideration, to devise.

This plan was adopted by the Regents in an ordinance passed on the 20th of January, in the same year, "as the best and the most feasible that could be derived under existing circumstances," and the following Academies recommended by the Committee, were selected, because the apparatus and library possessed by them was of a superior value, and their peculiar situation, and pecuniary endowments, such as to make the course of education in them the least expensive to the student.

To the 1st District Washington Hall Academy, Kings County.

do. 2d do. Montgomery	do. Orange County.
do. 3d do. Kinderhook	do. Columbia County.
do. 4th do. St. Lawrence,	do. St. Lawrence Co.
do. 5th do. Fairfield	do. Herkimer County.
do. 6th do. Oxford,	do. Chenango County.
do. 7th do. Canandaigua,	do. Ontario County.
do. 8th do. Middlebury,	do. Genesee County.

## 2. Results of this Experiment.

These Academic Departments for Common School Teachers have now been in operation about four years, and with happy results. The Regents of the University in their Annual Report for 1837, remark that they are still of the opinion that these departments will accomplish all the good results which were contemplated in their institution.

"In most of the academies with which they are connected, extensive arrangements have been made, at considerable expense to the institutions, for their accommodation. These arrangements are now completed, and if in any case the plan does not succeed, the Regents will deem it their duty to remove the department to some other institution. The success of the St. Lawrence academy shows that there is no inherent difficulty in the plan. The number of students in the teachers' department in that institution, during the last year, was 102. It should, however, be observed, in justice to other institutions, that the department had been some time in operation, and that its influence was widely felt, before it was taken under the special direction of the Regents. The whole number of students in the departments, who have during the last year been in a course of preparation for teaching, is 228, exceeding by 110 the number reported last year. A greater degree of success could not perhaps have been reasonably anticipated. The inadequate compensation ordinarily paid to teachers, has naturally the effect of deterring young men from entering these departments, with a view to devote themselves to the occupation of teaching; and sometime will be necessary to overcome this obstacle. But a very small number of persons annually prepared by a proper course of training, and engaged in the business of instruction in different parts of the State, will contribute, by the exhibition of approved methods, to create a demand for teachers of higher qualifications; better wages will be offered, the individuals instructed in these departments will be more sought for, and the inducements to enter the departments will be augmented.

"It should be borne in mind that the State pays, in most cases, but a portion of the expense of maintaining the departments. In St. Lawrence academy, the annual expense created by the department is estimated at \$1,200, of which the state pays about \$100. The success of the department in this institution, is in the highest degree gratifying. The trustees say, that "the success of the plan is such that the standard of our common schools is vastly raised. Its influence on public opinion is shown by the fact, that the districts are willing to pay the ordinary members of this department 50 to 75 per cent. more than was paid to our best teachers six or seven years ago; and although many of the classic department, who have paid some attention to the principles of teach-

ing, are now engaged in teaching district schools, still the academy has been unable to supply near all the districts which have applied."

The trustees of the Washington academy state, that the teachers educated in the department command higher wages than other teachers, and that the influence of the department on the common schools of the vicinity is beginning to be felt; that the average of the wages of teachers was \$12 per month, and that those from the department are now receiving from \$14 to \$18. The department has been only a single season under the direction of the Regents of the University, and none of the students can have completed the entire course of study. Yet the benefits of the training to which they are subjected in the principles of teaching are so manifest, that the students are, as appears by the statement of the trustees, in demand as teachers during the winter. The Regents, in establishing the departments, excluded the winter months from the prescribed term, for the purpose of allowing the students an opportunity of teaching, and thus carrying into practice, during four months, the knowledge acquired during the eight months of which the term is composed."

The Trustees of the St. Lawrence Academy in their Report to the Board of Regents, in 1836, conclude with the following valuable statement.

"We have delivered a course of lectures on the principles of teaching. One evening per week has been devoted to a public discussion of questions connected with both the theory and practice of teaching. These discussions have been ably sustained by the scholars; and an invaluable amount of practical information imparted by those who have spent considerable time in teaching. One fact mentioned in these exercises, may serve to show the influence of the efforts made in this department; and that much may actually be accomplished, though the scholars may remain only a short time in the department. One of the scholars, who has been for several years a very popular and successful teacher, remarked in illustration of the importance of leading the scholars to think, reason and decide for themselves, which had been the subject of a lecture by the principal in the former part of the evening: 'that seven years ago he attended this school one quarter, (it being the first term special efforts were made in behalf of teachers,) and that previous to this, he had been teaching about two years, pursuing the same old track; but by the assistance and impulse then given him, he was untutored and enabled to start ahead.' And he added that he had since taught rising 800 different children, of whom he had kept a list, and that more than 50 of them had since, to his knowledge, been employed as teachers in district schools, without having had any higher advantages than his school afforded. From these discussions, there has arisen a county association of district school teachers, which promises to prove very useful."

The Trustees of the Oxford Academy, in the Report to the Regents, for 1838, remark that the plan adopted by the Regents has had a very good effect upon the public mind, and a salutary influence upon the character of common schools, in their vicinity. They base this remark on the following fact: "that public attention seems to be directed to this Academy for Common School Teachers; that the demand is greater than the supply and more than in any previous year—that the wages of teachers from the Academy has advanced from last year at least ten per cent; that more young men of such talents as would be likely to succeed well as teachers, have entered the department; and more willingness has been manifested by them to complete the course of study prescribed by the Regents.

The Trustees of the Middlebury Academy, in 1838, say, "that the Teachers department is fast gaining the confidence of the public in this part of the country, and there is a greater demand for the more advanced students, as Teachers, than on any preceding year. The demand for first rate Teachers is beyond our means to supply. Common Schools are rapidly improving in character, in this part of our State."

These reports go to show that much good has already been done by the Act of 1834, as carried by the Regents of the University, in engraving Teachers departments, upon eight of her Academies. But the results of this system although favorable as far as they go, and quite as great as was ever anticipated by their friends, must necessarily be slow and limited. A Normal School in ten or twelve counties of the State, would accomplish more in a shorter time.

Gov. Marey in his Annual Message to the Legislature in 1838, thus speaks of them.

"Our common school system still labors under embarrassments arising from an inadequate supply of well qualified teachers. Our colleges and academies have heretofore been relied on to supply, to a considerable extent, this deficiency; but it has been quite evident for some time, that further provision ought to be made by legislative authority, to satisfy the public wants in this respect.

"The departments for educating common school teachers erected under the patronage of the State in eight of the academies have been in operation about two years, and the last reports from them present favorable results. The number of students attending them is steadily increasing; they are resorted to as sources of supplying the demand for teachers, and the services of those instructed in them are on that account considered more valuable and readily commanded in a higher rate of compensation.

"But no success that can attend those already established, will make them competent to supply in any considerable degree, the demand for

teachers; it has, therefore been proposed to increase the number of such departments in each senate district of the State, by devoting to that purpose a portion of the income to be derived from the deposit of the public moneys. It is well worthy of your consideration, whether still better results might not be obtained by county normal schools, established and maintained on principles analogous to those on which our system of common schools is founded. If the people were fully sensible how much the usefulness of our common schools would be increased by being generally furnished with competent instructors, it is presumed they would cheerfully contribute the means required to secure this advantage. Though there are conceded difficulties in the way of procuring an adequate supply of these instructors, yet the cause of education is so deeply interested in having it done to the utmost practicable extent, that you will doubtless regard it as an object every way deserving of your consideration."

#### NORMAL SCHOOLS IN MASSACHUSETTS.

The interesting subject of schools for the qualification of Teachers, attracted the attention of the members of the Board of Education at an early day after they were organized. It was an object which at that time, they felt a strong desire, but possessed no means, of accomplishing. There was reason to fear that they would have to await the slow process of a revolution in public sentiment;—a process, which is always materially retarded, when an appropriation of moneys is foreseen to be a consequence of conversion to a new opinion. But at this unpromising moment, a philanthropic gentleman,—Edmund Dwight, Esq. of this city, authorized the Secretary of the Board of Education to communicate to the Legislature a proposition, that he would place at the disposal of the Board, the sum of \$10,000, to be expended in the qualification of Teachers of common schools, on condition that the Legislature would place an equal sum in the same hands to be appropriated to the same purpose. On the 12th of March, 1839, this proposition was communicated to the two Houses, by the Secretary, in a letter of which the following is a copy:—

"To the President of the Senate, and the Speaker of the House of Representatives.

GENTLEMEN,

"Private munificence has placed conditionally at my disposal, the sum of Ten Thousand Dollars, to promote the cause of Popular Education in Massachusetts.

"The condition is, that the Commonwealth will contribute the same amount from unappropriated funds, in aid of the same cause;—both sums to be drawn upon equally, as needed, and to be disbursed under the direction of the Board of Education, in qualifying Teachers of our Common Schools.

"As the proposal contemplates that the State, in its collective capacity, shall do no more than is here proffered to be done from private means, and as, with a high and enlightened disregard of all local party and sectional views, it comprehends the whole of the rising generation in its philanthropic plan, I cannot refrain from earnestly soliciting for it the favorable regards of the Legislature.

Very respectfully,

HORACE MANN,

Secretary of the Board of Education.

"Boston, March 12th, 1838."

This communication was referred to a Joint Committee, who, on the 23d of March, made the following Report, accompanied by a Resolve:—

"In House of Representatives, 22d March, 1838.

"The Joint Committee, to whom were referred the communication of the Hon. Horace Mann, Secretary of the Board of Education, relative to a fund for the promotion of the cause of popular education in this Commonwealth, and also the memorial of the Nantucket County Association for the promotion of education, and the improvement of schools, and also the petition and memorial of the inhabitants of the town of Nantucket, on the same subject, having duly considered the matters therein embraced, respectfully

#### REPORT:

That the highest interest in Massachusetts is, and will always continue to be, the just and equal instruction of all her citizens, so far as the circumstances of each individual will permit to be imparted; that her chief glory, for two hundred years, has been the extent to which this instruction was diffused, the result of the provident legislation, to promote the common cause, and secure the perpetuity of the common interest: that, for many years, a well-grounded apprehension has been entertained, of the neglect of our common town schools by large portions of our community, and of the comparative degradation to which these institutions might fall from such neglect; that the friends of universal education, have long looked to the Legislature, for the establishment of one or more seminaries devoted to the purpose of supplying qualified teachers, for the town and district schools, by whose action alone other judicious provisions of law could be carried in a full effect; that at va-

rious times, the deliberation of both branches of the General Court, has been bestowed upon this, among other subjects, most intimately relating to the benefit of the rising generation and of all generations to come, particularly when the provision for instruction of school teachers was specially urged on their consideration, in 1827, by the message of the Governor, and a report thereupon, accompanied by a bill, was submitted by the chairman, now a member of the Congress of the United States, following out to their fair conclusions, the suggestion of the Executive, and the forcible essays of a distinguished advocate of this institution at great length, published and widely promulgated; that although much has been done within two or three years, for the encouragement of our town schools by positive enactment, and more by the liberal spirit, newly awakened in our several communities, yet the number of competent teachers is found, by universal experience, so far inadequate to supply the demand for them, as to be the principal obstacle to improvement, and the greatest deficiency of our republic; that we can hardly expect, as in the memorials from Nantucket is suggested, to remove this deficiency even in a partial degree, much less to realize the completion of the felicitous system of our free schools, without adopting means for more uniform modes of tuition and government in them, without better observing the rules of prudence in the selection of our common books, the unlimited diversity of which is complained of throughout the State, and that these benefits may reasonably be expected to follow from no other course than a well-devised scheme in full operation, for the education of teachers; that the announcement, in the communication recently received from the Secretary of the Board of Education, of that private munificence, which offers \$10,000 to this Commonwealth, for removal of this general want, at least in the adoption of initiatory measures of remedy, is received by us, with peculiar pleasure, and, in order that the General Court may consummate this good, by carrying forward the benevolent object of the unknown benefactor, the committee conclude, with recommending the passage of the subjoined resolutions.

All which is respectfully submitted;

JAMES SAVAGE, per order.

#### RESOLVES

##### RELATIVE TO QUALIFYING TEACHERS FOR COMMON SCHOOLS.

Whereas, by letter from the Honorable Horace Mann, Secretary of the Board of Education, addressed, on the 12th March current, to the President of the Senate, and the Speaker of the House of Representatives, it appears, that private munificence has placed at his disposal, the sum of ten thousand dollars, to promote the cause of popular education in Massachusetts, on condition that the Commonwealth will contribute from unappropriated funds, the same amount in aid of the same cause, the two sums to be drawn upon equally from time to time, as needed, and to be disbursed under the direction of the Board of Education in qualifying teachers for our Common Schools; therefore,

Resolved, That his Excellency the Governor be, and he is hereby authorized and requested, by and with the advice and consent of the Council, to draw his warrant upon the Treasurer of the Commonwealth in favor of the Board of Education, for the sum of \$10,000, in such instalments and at such times, as said Board may request: provided, said Board, in their request, shall certify, that the Secretary of said Board has placed at their disposal an amount equal to that for which such application may by them be made; both sums to be expended, under the direction of said Board, in qualifying teachers for the Common Schools in Massachusetts.

Resolved, That the Board of Education shall render an annual account of the manner in which said moneys have been by them expended.

This Resolve, after having passed both houses, almost unanimously, was approved by the Governor on the 19th of April, a fact in regard to the date, which those, who are curious in coincidences, may hereafter remember.

THE BENEFITS OF BOOKS, AND ESPECIALLY TO THE GREAT MASS OF THE PEOPLE.—It is chiefly through books that we enjoy intercourse with superior minds, and these invaluable means of communication are in the reach of all. In the best books, great men talk to us, give us their most precious thoughts, and pour their souls into ours. God be thanked for books. They are the voices of the distant and the dead, and make us heirs of the spiritual life of past ages. Books are the true levellers. They give to all, who will faithfully use them, the society, the spiritual presence of the best and greatest of our race. No matter how poor I am. No matter though the prosperous of my own time will not enter my obscure dwelling. If the sacred writers will enter and take up their abode under my roof, if Milton will cross my threshold to sing to me of Paradise, and Shakespeare to open to me the worlds of imagination and the working of the human heart, and Franklin to enrich me with his practical wisdom, I shall not pine for want of intellectual companionships, and I may become a cultivated man though excluded from what is called the best society in the place where I live.—[Channing on Self-Culture.